# HISTORY OF KANNADA LITERATURE

(READERSHIP LECTURES)

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#### CHAPTER I

#### ANTIQUITY OF KANNADA LITERATURE

As compared with that of the Sister Languages of Southern India

Some scholars have suggested that there may have been a Buddhist period in Kannada literature before the Jaina period. The same suggestion has also been made by some Telugu scholars with regard to their literature and it has been said that Buddhist works have been completely lost in Telugu, though a very few Jaina works have survived. The Tamils do not divide their literature into Buddhist, Jaina and other periods, because their literature contains works by Buddhist and Jaina authors at different times. With regard to Buddhist works in Tamil, it may be said that they are very few; and they occur along with works of Jainas and others at different periods till the 11th century. As instances there may be mentioned Manimēkhalai and Kundalakēśi, two of the five great kāvyas in Tamil, which go back to the Sangam period, and the grammar Vīraśōliyam of the 11th century.

Whether there was a Buddhist period in Kannada or no, its literature, such as it is, is of considerable antiquity, though no sages like Agastya and Kanva, as in Tamil and Telugu respectively, are associated with its origin. The earliest work extant is a treatise on poetics called Kavirājamārga by Nripatunga or Amōghavarsha, the Rāsṭrakūṭa king who ruled from 815 to 877. This king was a great scholar both in Kannada and Sanskrit and a great patron of literary merit. He has written in Sanskrit a small work called Praśnōttararatnamālā, of which the concluding verse tells us that he voluntarily retired from the throne. It may be of some interest to learn that

Ugrāditya, the Jaina author of Kalyānakāraka, a Sanskrit work on medicine, says at the close of the work that at the instance of this king he delivered at his court, in the presence of many physicians and doctors, a discourse on the evils of a flesh diet and on its avoidance in the treatment of disease. Nṛipatunga was a Jaina king, a disciple of Jinasēna, the author of Adipurāna. His work on poetics presupposes the existence of previous Kannada works, and accordingly we find references in it which enable us to place the rise of Kannada literature much farther back. He mentions several Kannada authors that preceded him: Vimala, Udaya, Nāgārjuna, Jayabandhu and Durvinīta as the best writers of Kannada prose; and Srīvijaya, Kavīśvara, Pandita, Chandra and Lokapala as the best writers of Kannada poetry. Durvinita, mentioned as a Kannada prose writer, was evidently the Ganga king of that name. The name Durvinita, being rare and unusual, may safely be taken to refer to the Ganga king, the only inscription in which the name occurs outside Ganga grants being Māgadi 75, of 966, about a century after Nṛipatunga's time. Durvinita was a remarkable personage with manysided scholarship.1

The Avantisundarīkathāsāra, discovered some years ago by the Madras Oriental Manuscripts Library, gives a valuable clue to the period of Durvinīta. In the introductory chapter it says that Bhāravi stayed for some time at the court of Durvinīta and that he was a contemporary of Vishņuvardhana, evidently the first Eastern Chālukya king, and of Simhavishņu, the Pallava king of Kānchi. Briefly, the account given of Bhāravi runs thus:—In the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> His Nallāla plates (Mysore Archæological Report for 1924, p 70), describe his scholarship thus:

ಅನೇಕ ಕಾವ್ಯ ಕಧಾ ನಾಟಕ ಪ್ರಣಯನ ಪ್ರರೂಢ ಪಾಟನೇನ, ನೀತಿಶಾಸ್ತ್ರ ಗ್ರಂಧಾರ್ಧ ಪ್ರಯೋಗ ಪ್ರತಿಪಾದನಂ ಪ್ರತಿ ಪ್ರತ್ಯಕ್ಷ ವಿಷ್ಣುಗುಪ್ತೇನ, ಗಾಂಧರ್ವ ನಾಟ್ಯ ಶಾಸ್ತ್ರ ವ್ಯಾಖ್ಯಾನ ವಿನಿಯೋಗಂ ಪ್ರತಿ ಸಮತಿಶಯಿತ ತುಂಬರು ನಾರದ ಭರತ ಕಂಬಳಾಚಾರ್ರ್ಯೆಣ, ಹಸ್ತಿ ಶಿಕ್ಷಾ ಶ್ವ ಶಿಕ್ಷಾ ವಿಜ್ಞಾನ ವಿನಿಯೋಜನಂ ಪ್ರತಿ ಸಮತುಲಿತ ರಾಜಪುತ್ರ ಶಾಲಿಹೋತ್ರೇಣ, ಅಸ್ತ್ರೋ ಪಾಸ್ತ್ರ ವಿಪ್ರಹರಣ ವಿದ್ಯಾಭಿಯೋಗಂ ಪ್ರತಿ ಸಮಕ್ಷೀಕೃತ ಪರಶುರಾಮೇಣ, ಪುರುಷ ಲಕ್ಷ್ ಣ ಶಾಸ್ತ್ರ ವಿಧೀ ಪ್ರತಿ ಸಾಕ್ಷಾ ತ್ರಮುದ್ರಸೂರಿಣಾ, ಆಯುರ್ವೇದ ವಿಜ್ಞಾನಂ ಪ್ರತಿ ಸದೃಶಾತ್ರೇಯ ಧನ್ನಂತರೀ ಚರಕೇನ, ಅರಿ ನರಪತಿ ಶ್ರೀ ದುರ್ವಿನೀತ ನಾಮಧೇಯೇನ.

city of Kanchi in the south of India ruled a king of the Pallavas named Simhavishņu who was a great patron of learning. One day a stranger appeared before him and recited a Sanskrit verse in praise of the Narasimha incarnation of Vishnu. On hearing the lofty sentiments expressed in the verse the king enquired of the stranger who the author of the verse was. He replied thus: 'In the north-west there is a town named Anandapura, the crest-jewel of Āryadēśa, from which a family of Brāhmanas of the Kausika-gotra migrated and settled at Achalapura. Nārāyaņasvāmi, a member of this family, had a son named Dāmōdara, who became a great scholar and was known as Bhāravi. He became a friend of king Vishnuvardhana. On one occasion he accompanied the king on a hunting expedition and while in the forest had to eat animal flesh. To expiate this sin he set out on a pilgrimage and finally settled in the court of Durvinīta. He is the author of this verse.' On hearing this account the king, desirous of seeing the poet, invited him to his court. The poet caused great joy to the king by reciting his poems. The king gave him a respectable dwelling to live in and supplied all his wants.

This extract establishes the contemporaneity of the Pallava king Simhavishņu (c. 575-600), the Ganga king Durvinīta and the Eastern Chālukya king Vishņuvardhana (I). This association of Durvinīta with Bhāravi affords a clear explanation of the statement in most of the Ganga grants that Durvinīta was the author of a commentary on the fifteenth Sarga of Bhāravi's Kirātārjunīya. When Bhāravi was with him, Durvinīta might have exercised his skill in commenting on the fifteenth Sarga of his work, which is full of alliteration and other forms of sabdālankāra or verbal ornaments and is consequently difficult of comprehension without a commentary. The period of Durvinīta according to the newly discovered work will thus be about 600.

As stated before, Durvinīta was a great Sanskrit scholar. He wrote, according to the Ganga grants, a grammatical work named *Sabdāvatāra*, a commentary on Pānini's Grammar, and translated into Sanskrit the

Paisāchi Vaddakathā or Brihatkathā of Gunādhva as the epithet applied to him in the Ganga grants, viz., Devabhāratī-nibaddha-Brihatkathah, clearly shows. This epithet was not properly read and understood by some scholars who read it Devabhāratī-nibaddha-Brihatpathah and interpreted it as meaning that Durvinīta was a disciple of Dēva or Dēvanandi, a name of Pūjyapāda. It is to be regretted that his translation has not come down to us. It happens to be the earliest Sanskrit translation of Guṇāḍhya's work. There are three later translations of this work, namely, Brihatkathāślokasangraha Budhasvāmi, of about the 8th century; Bṛihatkathāmañiari by Kshēmēndra, and Kathāsaritsāgara by Somadeva, both of the 11th century. Budhasvāmi's work has been published in Paris by Professor Felix Lacote, Professor of Sanskrit in the University of Lyon. period we have already arrived at for Durvinīta is corroborated by an inscription at Aihole (Epigraphia Indica, VI, 1-12). This epigraph was composed in 634 A.D. by a Jaina poet named Ravikirti, who speaks of himself as having acquired the fame of Kālidāsa and Bhāravi in poetical skill. (Kavitāśrita-Kālidāsa-Bhāravi-Kīrtih.) For the fame of Bhāravi as a great poet to spread to the south we have to postulate a period of about half a century, and this fact, too, confirms the period of Durvinīta as about 600.

Kannada inscriptions make their appearance from about the 5th century, which indicate an older stage of the language, as will be shown later on, than that found in *Kavirājamārga*. Besides the authors named by Nṛipatuṅga, Syāmakundāchārya appears, according to Indranandi's *Srutāvatāra*,<sup>2</sup> to have written *Prābhṛita* in Kannada.

When speaking of the greatness of the Kannada language in his Sabdānuśāsana, Bhaṭtākalanka (1604) says: 'Nor is Karṇāṭaka a language unused for scientific

<sup>1</sup> ಕವಿತಾಶ್ರಿತ ಕಾಲಿದಾಸ ಭಾರವಿಕೀರ್ತಿಃ.

² ಕಾಲೇತತಃ ಕಿಯತ್ಯಪಿಗತೇ ಪುನಃ ಶ್ಯಾಮಕುಂದಸಂಜ್ಞೇನ | ಪ್ರಾಕೃತ ಸಂಸ್ಕೃತ ಕರ್ಣಾಟಭಾಷಯಾ ಪದ್ದತಿಃ ಪರಾ ರಚಿತಾ ||

purposes. For, in it was written the great work called Chūdāmaņi, 96,000 verse-measures in extent, a commentary on the Tattvārthamahāśāstra.' And from Indranandi's Śrutāvatāra² and Dēvachandra's Rājāvalīkathe, we learn that the author of this voluminous Kannaḍa commentary was Tumbulūrāchārya, who, judging from the pedigree of Jaina gurus given at the end of Chāmuṇḍarāyapurāṇa (978), appears to have lived along with the above-mentioned Syāmakundāchārya in about the middle of the 7th century. This voluminous work of the 7th century presupposes the existence of an earlier literature and a widespread cultivation of the language.

From the Sravana Belgola inscription 67, of 1129, we learn that Srīvardhadēva, a crest-jewel of poets, was the author of a great poem named Chūļāmaņi and that he was thus praised by Dandi.3 Siva bore the Ganga on the tip of his matted hair. O Srīvardhadēva! you bear Sarasvati on the tip of your tongue! From the similarity of the name Chūdamani, Srīvardhadeva has been identified with Tumbulūrāchārya. But this, I am inclined to think, is a mistake. The great poem Chūļāmani and the commentary Chūdāmani cannot be the same. I venture to think that the reference is to the Tamil poem Chūļāmaņi attributed to Tolāmoļidēvar, otherwise known as Śrīvardhadēvar. Chūļāmaņi is a classical Jaina poem in Tamil, considered as one of the five well-known minor poems in that language, written during the rule of the Karvetti king Vijaya, whose period is not definitely known.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ನ ಚೈನಾ (ಕರ್ಣಾಟಭಾನಾ) ಶಾಸ್ತ್ರಾನುಪಯೋಗಿನೀ; ತತ್ತ್ವಾರ್ಧ ಮಹಾಶಾಸ್ತ್ರ ವ್ಯಾಖ್ಯಾನಸ್ಯ ಷಣ್ಣವತಿಸಹಸ್ರಪ್ರಮಿತ ಗ್ರಂಧಸಂದರ್ಭರೂಪಸ್ಯ ಚೂಡಾಮಣ್ಯಭಿಧಾನಸ್ಯ ಮಹಾ ಶಾಸ್ತ್ರಸ್ಯ . . ಉಪಲಭ್ಯಮಾನತ್ವಾತ್.

<sup>2</sup> ಕರ್ಣಾಟಭಾಷಯಾ ಕೃತ ಮಹತೀಂ ಚೂಡಾಮಣಿಂ ವ್ಯಾಖ್ಯಾಂ.

<sup>3</sup> ಚೂಳಾವುಣಿಃ ಕವೀನಾಂ ಚೂಳಾಮಣಿನಾಮಸೇವ್ಯಕಾವ್ಯಕವೀ | ಶ್ರೀವರ್ಧದೇವ ಏವಹಿ ಕೃತಪುಣ್ಯಃ ಕೀರ್ತಿಮಾಹರ್ಚುಂ ||

ಯ ಏವಮುಷಶ್ಲೋಕಿತ್ಕೊ ದಂಡಿನಾ:—

ಜಹ್ನೋಃ ಕನ್ಯಾಂ ಜಟಾಗ್ರೇಣ ಬಭಾರ ಪರಮೇಶ್ವರಃ |
ಶ್ರೀವರ್ಧದೇವ ಸಂಧತ್ಸೇ ಜಹ್ವಾಗ್ರೇಣ ಸರಸ್ವತೀಂ ||

It has been stated above that Kannada inscriptions of an earlier period than Kavirājamārga show an older stage of the language. To illustrate this statement I give below some extracts from early inscriptions:

#### Early Inscriptions prior to Nripatunga's Period

- 1. CHIKMAGAĻŪR 50 (c. 500). ನಿರ್ವ್ವಿನೀತರಾ ಕಿಱುಯಾ ಮಗನ್ದಿರ್ ಪಟ್ಟಸೂಡಿದೊರ್.
- 2. Śravana Belgola 27 (c. 700). ಮಾಸೇನರ್ ಪರಮಪ್ರಭಾವರುಷಿಯರ್ ಕಟ್ಪಪ್ಪಿನಾ ವೆಟ್ಟದುಳ್ ಶ್ರೀ ಸಂಘಂಗಳ ಪೇಟ್ದ ಸಿದ್ಧ ಸಮಯಂ ತಪ್ಪಾದೆ ನೋಂತಿಂಬಿನಿಕ್ | ಪ್ರಾಸಾದಾಂತರಮಾಕ್ ವಿಚಿತ್ರ ಕನಕಪ್ರಜ್ವಲ್ಯರ್ದಿ ಮಿಕ್ಕು ದಾಕ್ ಸಾಸಿರ್ವರ್ ವರಪೂಜೆದಂದುಯೆ ಅವರ್ ಸ್ವರ್ಗಾಗ್ರಮಾನೇಱುದಾರ್ ||
- 3. CHIKMAGALŪR 92 (c. 750).

  ಇದಾ ಪ್ರಾರಾಣ್ಯ ನಾನುಂ ಊರಾಳ್ಸೋನಾನುಂ ಊರಾ ಒಕ್ಕ ಲಾನುಂ ಅಚಿದೋರ್ ಪಜ್ಞ ಮಹಾಪಾತಕಯುಕ್ತರ್.
- 4. Kapūr 45 (c. 750). ಒರ್ವಳ್ಳನೆಯ್ನಿ ಜಾಸಿದಾರ್ವ ಕಿಡಿಸಿದೋನುಂ ಬಾರಣಾಸಿಯುಳ್ ಪಾತಕಂಗೆಯ್ದೋನ ಸಂದ ಗತಿಗೆ ಸಲ್ಫೋರ್.

In these extracts we find many archaic forms not found in *Kavirājamārga* and works that followed it. In fact the language of Nṛipatuṅga scarcely differs from that of the later authors of the 10th and 11th centuries. The inscriptions show:

- 1. 'A general use of the lengthened form of the vowel of the genitive: సిన్మ్మి సిన్మా కట్మప్పినా, అంరాం.
- 2. The use of the locative suffix *ul* for the later *ol*: ವೆಟ್ಟದುಳ್, ಬಾರಣಾಸಿಯುಳ್.
- 3. A general use of the lengthened form of the vowel of the accusative, even when followed by a consonant: ಪ್ರಾಸಾದಾಂತರಮಾ೯, ಮಕ್ಕುದಾ೯, ಸ್ವರ್ಗಾಗ್ರಮಾ೯, ಇದಾ೯.
- 4. The use of n for the later bindu: ಇಂಬಿನಿಕ್, ಪ್ರಜ್ನಲ್ಭ ದಿಕ್; see also examples under (3).

- 5. The use of the long vowel instead of the later short vowel in ತಪ್ಪಾದೆ and ಕಿಟುಯಾ
- 6. The general use of the lengthened form of the vowel of the conjugational suffixes:

ಏಱುದಾರ್, ಅಡಿದೋರ್, ನಿಱುಸಿದಾಕ್, ಕಿಡಿಸಿದೋಕ್, ಆಳ್ವೋಕ್ ಗೆಯ್ದೋಕ್, ಸಲ್ಸೋಕ್.

#### Tamil Literature

No one entertains a doubt about the antiquity of Tamil literature, but this antiquity depends to a great extent on the period assigned to the authors and works of the third Sangam.

According to tradition there were three Tamil Sangams or Academies at long intervals in different places. The following particulars are given about them in Nakkīrar's commentary on Iraiyanār's Agapporul:—

The first academy was established at Southern Madura, now submerged in the Indian ocean. Its members were 549 in number, including among others Agastya, its president, and the gods Siva and Subrahmanya; and the number of authors who obtained its approval for their works was 4,449. It was patronised by 89 Pāndya kings, of whom 7 were also poets, and lasted for 4,440 years.

The second academy had its seat at Kapāṭapuram, also submerged in the ocean. Its members, including Agastya, his disciple Tolkāppiya and others, were 59 in number, the number of poets whose works were passed by it being 3,700. It received the patronage of 59 Pāṇḍya kings, 5 of whom were also learned scholars, and continued for 3,700 years.

The third academy was founded at Northern Madura. Its members were 49 in number, including Nakkīrar, its president, Kapilar, Paraṇar, Sīttalai Sāttanār and others, the number of authors who obtained its approval for their writings being 449. It was patronised by 49 Pāṇḍya kings, 3 of whom were also poets, and lasted for 1,850 years.

If the facts stated above be subjected to strict historical criticism, most of them will have to be rejected

as pure myths. The number of members of the academies and of the kings who patronised them, as also of the poets whose works were passed by them, and the long periods during which they are said to have existed, look incredible. Some scholars are therefore inclined to think that the account given above is a later fabrication foisted on the early author Nakkīrar. Kavāṭapuram of the Pāndyas is, however, mentioned in Vālmīki-Rāmāyana as full of gold and adorned with pearls1 and must therefore be an ancient city. The existence of the academies may be a fact, though the details given about them may not be credible. They exercised a great authority over Tamil literature and were something like literary associations including among its members the best poets and learned men of the age. Any work not approved of by them was looked upon as a very inferior production. The members of these learned corporations maintained a strict monopoly of literary reputation so that it was not an easy matter to have works, however excellent, recognised by them. According to some scholars the accounts of the first two academies contain much legendary matter so that it is difficult to admit them within the pale of real history. Such, however, does not seem to them to be the case with the third academy. The third academy was by far the most important, almost all the classical works of Tamil literature that have come down to us, including a good number by Jaina authors, being productions which received the imprimatur of this Sangam.

Opinion is divided among scholars about the period of the third Sangam, some assigning to it the second century A.D., some the 5th century and others the 8th century. The 2nd century is arrived at by the fact that Gajabāhu, a king of Ceylon who ruled in the middle of the 2nd century, was, according to the poem Silappadikāram present at the installation of the Goddess

¹ ತತ್ತೋ ಹೇಮಮಯಂ ದಿವ್ಯಂ ಮುಕ್ತಾ ಮಣಿವಿಭೂಷಿತಂ | ಯುಕ್ತಂ ಕವಾಟಂ ಪಾಂಡ್ಸ್ ನಾಂ ಗತಾ ದ್ರಕ್ಷ್ಯಧ ವಾನರಾಃ || ಕಿಷ್ಕಿಂಧಾಕಾಂಡ, 41, 19.

Pattini conducted by the Chēra king Senguṭṭuvan. The 8th century is objected to on the ground that Nakkīrar. a poet of the third Saṅgam, is referred to in his Dēvāram by Appar, a contemporary of Siruttoṇḍar who fought at the battle of Vātāpi which took place in 642. The balance of opinion among Tamil scholars appears to be in favour of the Gajabāhu synchronism, which will carry back the antiquity of Tamil literature to the earliest centuries of the Christian era.

But Sīttalai Sāttanār, author of the Tamil epic Manimēkhalai, which is considered to be a work of the third Saṅgam, and has been assigned by several Tamil scholars to the 2nd century, has regularly translated Diṅnāga's Nyāyapravēsa in lines 110 to 474 of the chapter known as Tavattirampūndu tarumam Kēṭṭa Kādai of his work. So he must be posterior to Diṇnāga who is supposed to be not earlier than the 4th century. But Tamil scholars may say that both the authors may have derived the information from an earlier common source. This is not, however, likely, as the following extracts from the Tamil and Sanskrit works will show the only difference being a few additional explanatory words in the Tamil passage:

#### I. 11. 122-24.

ನತು ಮೂನ್ಯಾಯ್ ತ್ತೋಸುವೊಡಿಸ್ಗೆ ಪಕ್ಕ ತ್ತೂಸ್ಥಿ ನಿಜ್ಞಲುಜ್ಜ್ ಪಕ್ಕತ್ತುಣ್ಣಾ ದಲುಂ ವಿಪಕ್ಕತ್ತಿಸ್ಥಿಯೇ ವಿಡುತಲುಂ

#### II. 11. 147-171.

ಪಕ್ಕ ವ್ಯೋಲಿಯೊನ್ಬದು ವಕೈಪ್ಪಡುಮ್ ಪಿರತ್ತಿಯಕ್ಕ ವಿರುತ್ತಮನುಮಾನ ವಿರುತ್ತಜ್ಜು ವಶನವಿರುತ್ತಮುಲೋಕ ವಿರುತ್ತಮಾಗಮನಿರುತ್ತಮಪ್ಪಿರ ಶಿತ್ತವಿಶೇಡಣಮಪ್ಪಿರಶಿತ್ತ ವಿಶೇಡಿಯಮಪ್ಪಿರಶಿತ್ತವುಬಯ ಹೇತುಸ್ತಿರೂಪಃ|ಕಿಂಪುನಸ್ತೈರೂಪ್ಯಂ| ಪಕ್ಷಧರ್ಮತ್ವಂ ಸಪಕ್ಷೇಸತ್ವಂ ವಿಪಕ್ಷೇ ಚಾಸತ್ತ್ವಮಿತಿ|

ಸಕ್ಷಾಭಾಸಾಃ ನವ | ತದ್ಯಭಾ— ಪ್ರತ್ಯಕ್ಷ ವಿರುದ್ಧ ಃ, ಅನುಮಾನವಿರುದ್ಧ ಃ, ಆಗಮವಿರುದ್ಧ ಃ, ಸ್ವವಚನವಿರುದ್ಧ ಃ, ಲೋಕವಿರುದ್ದ ಃ, ಅಪ್ರಸಿದ್ಧ ವಿಶೇಷಣಃ, ಅಪ್ರಸಿದ್ಧ ವಿಶೇಷ್ಯ ಃ, ಅಪ್ರಸಿದ್ದೋ ಭಯಃ,

ಮಪ್ಪಿರಶಿತ್ವಶಮ್ಯನ್ನಮ್ಮೆ ನ ವೆಣ್ಣೆಯವಿವಱುಟಿ ರತ್ತಿಯಕ್ಕವಿರುತ್ತ ಬ್ದಣ್ಣಿಯ ಕಾಟ್ಟಿ ಮಾಹುಕೊಳಲಾಗು ಮಱ್ಞಿಸುಮಾಸವಿರುತ್ತಮಾವರು ಕರುತ್ತಳವೈಯ್ಸೆ ಮಾಱುಾಗಕ್ತೂಱ ಲನಿತ್ತಿಯಕ್ಷಡತ್ತೈ ನಿತ್ತಿಯಮೆಸ್ಟಲ್ ಶುವಶನವಿರುತ್ತ್ರನ್ನ ಕಿನ್ನಾ ಅಯಿ ಯಮ್ನ ಲೆನ್ಹಾಯ್ ಮಲಡಿಯೆನ್ನೆ ಯಿಯಮ್ಸಲ್ ಆಗಮವಿರುತ್ತನ್ನ ಸ್ಫೂ ನ್ಯಾ ಅಱ್ಟುದ್ಯ ಲನಿತ್ತವಾದಿಯಾಯುಳ್ಳ ವೈಶೇಡಿಕ ಸನಿತ್ತಿಯತ್ತೈ ನಿತ್ತಿಯವುನ ಸುವಱ ಲಪ್ಪಿರಶಿತ್ತ್ರ ವಿಶೇಡಣಮಾವದು ತತ್ತವೆುದಿರುಕ್ಕು ಚ್ಚಾತ್ತಿಯನ್ದೆ ರಿ ಯಾಮ್ಬೆ ಪೌತ್ತ್ರ೯ ಮಾಡಾಯ್ನಿಕ್ಟ ಶಾಬ್ಚಿಯನೈ ಕ್ಕು ಱಿತ್ತು ಚ್ಚತ್ತವ್ ವಿನಾಶಿಯೆನ್ಡ್ರಾಲ್

ಪ್ರಸಿದ್ದ 'ಸಂಬಂಧಸ್ವೇತಿ |
ತತ್ರ ಪ್ರತ್ಯಕ್ಷ ವಿರುದ್ದೋ ಯಧಾ—
ಅಶ್ರಾವಣಃ ಶಬ್ದ ಇತಿ |
ಅನುಮಾನವಿರುದ್ದೋ ಯಥಾ—
ನಿತ್ಯೋಘಟ ಇತಿ |
ಸ್ಟೆ ವ ಚ ನ ವಿರು ದ್ದೋ ಯ ಫಾ —
ಮಾತಾ ಮೇ ವಂಧ್ಯಾ |
ಆಗಮವಿರುದ್ದೋಯಧಾ—ವೈಶೇಷಿಕಸ್ಯ
ನಿತ್ಯಶೃಬ್ದ ಇತಿ ಸಾಧಯತಃ |
ಅಪ್ರಸಿದ್ಧ ವಿಶೇಷಣೋಯಧಾ-ಬೌದ್ಧ ಸ್ಯ
ಸಾಂಖ್ಯಂ ಪ್ರತಿ ವಿನಾಶೀ ಶಬ್ದ ಇತಿ |

If the period assigned to Dinnaga is correct, the period of *Manimekhali* and consequently the period of the third Sangam will probably be the 5th century.

## Telugu Literature

The earliest work extant in Telugu is the *Bhārata* of Nannayya-bhaṭṭa, the court poet of the Eastern Chālukya king Rājarāja (1023-63). He is generally considered to be the first poet in that language. But, as in the case of Kannaḍa, poetical inscriptions of an earlier period have been found such as those of the Eastern Chālukya king Guṇaga-Vijayāditya (844-88) in Ongole

¹ I am told that some Tibetan manuscripts have the reading ಅವ್ಯಸಿದ್ದ.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> I am indebted to Mr H R Rangaswamiengar, M.A., of the Oriental Library, for the Sanskrit extracts.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> ನಾಚಾಮಾಂಧ್ರಮಯೀನಾಂ ಯಃ ಪ್ರವಕ್ತಾ ಪ್ರಧನೋಭವತ್ | ಆಚಾರ್ರಂ ತಂ ಕವೀಂದ್ರಾಣಾಂ ವಂದೇ ವಾಗನುಶಾಸನಂ ||

Taluk (Madras *Epigraphical Report* for 1923) and the pillar inscription at Bezwāda of the Eastern Chālukya King Yuddhamalla who ruled in the early part of the 10th century. Nannayya-bhaṭṭa also happens to be the first grammarian of the Telugu language, and grammar presupposes the existence of previous literature.

## Malayāļam Literature

With regard to Malayalam literature, the scholars of that language say that up to the 10th century the language of Kēraļa was Sendamiļ, i.e., pure Tamil. Omitting maņipravāļam works, Rāmacharitam by Srī-Rāma, a Travancore king of the 13th century, is the earliest work in Malayāļam literature. In Malayāļam manipravāļam works not only Sanskrit words but also Sanskrit case endings were freely combined with Malavalam words.1 The real secret of manipravālam according to Malayālam scholars lay in the blending of Malayalam and Sanskrit words in such a manner as to make the latter indistinguishable from the former, exactly as the intermingling of the ruby and the coral in one and the same necklace. Tuñjattu Eluttachchan of the 16th century is considered as the father of modern Malavalam (classical) literature. I may add that there are manipravāla works in Tamil also.

It will thus be seen that the literature of Kannada is of far greater antiquity than that of any other South Indian, or for that matter, any other Indian, vernacular, except perhaps that of Tamil.

As instances I give two verses from Śrīkrishnacharitam:
ಅತ್ರಾಂತರೇ ತತ್ರ ಸಮಿಸವಾಸೀ ಸತ್ರಾಜಿತಾಖ್ಯ ೯ ಕಿಲ ಯಾದವೇಂದ್ರ ೯ |
ಮಿತ್ರಪ್ರಸಾದೇನ ಮದಾಲಭಿಚ್ಛಾ ೯ ಮಿತ್ರಪ್ರಕಾ ಜೋಪಮಮೇಕರತ್ನಂ ||
ವೈಕುಂರದೇವ ನಿಹಗೋಕ್ಕಳೆ ಮೇಪ್ಷ ದಿನ್ನಾ ಯ್ ಪೋಕುನ್ನ ದಿನ್ನ ಬಹು ಸಂಕಟಮಂಗನಾನಾಂ |
ಕೃಷ್ಣ ೯ ವರುನ್ನ ವಚಿನೋಕ್ಕೆ ವಸಿಕ್ಕು ಮೇಹ್ರಿಂ ತೃಷ್ಣಾ ವಶೇನ ವಿವರಾ ದಿವಸಾವಸಾನೇ ||
I am obliged to Mr. P. R. Subrahmanya Sastri, B A., for these extracts.

#### CHAPTER II

#### POETS AND POETRY

NRIPATUNGA (815-77) in his Kavirājamārga gives the uses of Kāvya in the following verse (I, 18):

ಸಾಪವಿದು ಫುಣ್ಯಮಿದು ಹಿತ! ರೂಪವಿದಹಿತಪ್ರಕಾರಮಿದು ಸುಬವಿದು ದುಃ! ಪೋಪಾತ್ತವಿದೆಂದಱಪುಗು | ಮಾ ಪರಮಕವಿಪ್ರಧಾನರಾ ಕಾಮ್ನಂಗಳ್ ||

He mentions two kinds of composition (I, 32, 34 and 35), bedande and chattana, with the remark that they were recognised by early poets. The former is defined as a composition consisting of alternate kandas and vrittas, and the latter as one consisting of many kandas along with vrittas, akkara, chaupadi, gītika and tivadi. He states (I, 50) that Hala-Gannada is quite appropriate in ancient poems, but insipid in works of the present time like association with an old woman. According to him mixture of Kannada with Sanskrit is harsh to the ear (1, 52), but mixture of Kannada with Sama-Samskrita is pleasant to the ear like music (I, 54), while mixture of Kannada and Sanskrit in compounds is disagreeable like mixing drops of buttermilk with boiling milk (I, 57). He condemns unnecessary use of expletives such as ante, matte, gadam, etc., in the following verse (II, 12):

ಇನ್ನಂತೆ ಮತ್ತೆ ಬಡಿ ಮಿಗೆ| ಮುಂ ನಿಲೆ ತಾಂ ಮೇಣ್ ವೆಹಿಂ ಗಡಂ ಗಳಮಾದಂ | ಕೆಸ್ನಂ ನಿಲ್ಲೆಂದಿವನೆಂ | ದುಂ ನಿಹುಸಲ್ಕಲ್ಲದೆಡೆಗಳೊಳ್ ಕಲ್ಲದಿರಿಂ ||

We may now consider the several species of composition which Nāgavarma names and defines at the close of his Kāvyāvalōkana. He begins with the statement that composition is of three kinds—prose, poetry and both combined, and tells us that a work written in prose is called Kathā (or tale) or Akhyāyika (or narrative), that when composed in verse and continued in a number of cantos (Sarga) it is styled a great poem, and that when written in prose and verse it is termed Champū. Again,

a piece of poetry, complete in a single stanza, is called Idukungabbam; where complete in a number of stanzas (usually five), it is known as Kulaka; and when it consists of a number of independent stanzas, it is termed Kōsa. Further, a poem which may extend to twelve stanzas, some of which are in the kanda metre interspersed with some in the metre of one of the well-known vrittas, is styled melvādu; that which consists of 15 or 25 stanzas is called pādu; that which is made up of a number of pādus is known as pādugabbam, to which class likewise melvādu and bedande-gabbam belonged; and lastly, that which consists of stanzas composed in a variety of metres is termed bājane-gabbam. Of the above, melvādu, bedandegabbam and bājane-gabbam, which are peculiar to Kannada, appear to have been sung with or without the accompaniment of a musical instrument, as is evident from the words pādu (song) and bājane (playing upon a musical instrument). As stated above, Nripatunga mentions two kinds of composition styled bedande and chattana. As Nāgavarma's definition of bajane-gabbam nearly agrees with that of chattana, it may be concluded that they are identical. Besides, a comparison of Nagavarma's definition of melvādu with that of bedande leads one to think that the latter is probably another name for the former. Most of the above kinds of composition have not survived to our times. Among the extant Kannada works, Janna's Yaśōdharacharita (1209) is perhaps the only one that seems to answer to the description of melvādu.

Some of Nāgavarma's observations on poets and poetry deserve notice. Though men may reach the farther shore of the sea of learning, it is only the fortunate among them that become possessors of the world-famed gem of poetical power (v. 425). A poet ought to exercise as great care in the selection and use of words and expressions as a garland-maker in the selection and use of flowers (v. 498). However slight the blemish in the

¹ ಇದು ಸೌಂದರ್ಯಗುಣಪ್ರಕಾಶವಿಯ ತಾನಗ್ರಾಮ್ಯತಾಧಾನಮಿಂ | ತಿದು ಭಾಸ್ವತ್ನ ರಭಾಗರಮ್ಯವಿಂದು ಬಂಧಾಶ್ಲ ಇವಿಚ್ಛಿತ್ತಿಗಾ || ಸ್ಪದವೊಂದಿಂತುಚಿತ ಪ್ರಯೋಗವಿಧಿಯಿಂ ಸಯ್ತಪ್ಪಿ ನಂ ತಿರ್ದಿ ವೇ |

body of the woman, poetry, the fame acquired through her will also become sullied, just as a mirror is obscured by a shadow (v. 428). Consequently, he who is desirous of acquiring unsullied fame cannot be too scrupulous in

avoiding blemishes in his composition (v. 429).

Verses 55, 65, 209 and 299, which are quoted by Nāgavarma from earlier works, also contain interesting observations on poets and poetry. Verse 55 condemns the combination of Kannada and Sanskrit words in composition, comparing it to the stringing together of pearls and pepper-corns. We have already seen that Nripatunga compares it to the mixing of drops of butter-milk with boiling milk; Nayasēna (1112) characterises it as a mixing together of clarified butter and oil. According to verse 65, there is as much difference between good and bad poetry as there is between a lute and a wooden stool. Verse 209 states that the heart which is not captivated by elegant poetry is a stony heart which it is impossible even for the arrow of the god of Love to pierce. Verse 299 asks, 'Is he to be reckoned a poet whose obscure effusions require for their comprehension number of glossaries and commentaries?'

In connection with the simile of a garland-maker to a poet mentioned above, the following observation of

Janna is worthy of note:

'Just as a garland, beautifully prepared, must fade in the absence of worthy wearers, even so must a work,

ಲ್ಪುದು ಪೂವೂಲೆಯನಿಂಬಿನಿಂ ಸಮೆವವೋಲ್ ಸತ್ಕಾವ್ಯಮಂ ಕಬ್ಬಿಗಂ $\parallel$ 

Cp Nēmichandra:

ಒಟ್ಟೆಗೆ ಬಂದ ಕೋ ಮಳಗುಣಂ ಗೆಡೆಗೊಂಡಿರೆ ಪಂವಿನಂತಿರಾ | ಯ್ದಿಟ್ಟ ಪದಂ ಬೆಡಂಗೆಸಿಸೆ ಬಣ್ಣ ಸರಂ ವೊಸತಾಗೆ ನುಣ್ಣೊಡಂ || ಬಟ್ಟಿರ ಬಂಧನೊಂದೆ ಚತುರಾಳಿ ಕರಂ ಬಸಮಾಗೆ ಬಾಸಿಗಂ | ಗಟ್ಟುವನಂತೆ ಕಟ್ಟುವುದು ಕಬ್ಬ ಮನುಬ್ಬಣಮಾಗ ಕಬ್ಬಿಗಂ ||

Cp. also Bhāmaha:

ಏತದ್ಗ್ರಾಹ್ಯಂ ಸುರಭಿಕುಸುಮಂ ಗ್ರಾಮ್ಯಮೇತನ್ನ ಧೇಯಂ | ಧತ್ತೇ ಶೋಭಾಂ ವಿರಚಿತಮಿದಂ ಸ್ಥಾ ನಮಸೈತದಸ್ಯ || ಮಾಲಾಕಾರೋ ರಚಯತಿ ಯಧಾ ಸಾಧು ವಿಜ್ಞಾಯ ಮಾಲಾಂ | ಯೋಜ್ಯಂ ಕಾವ್ಯೇಷ್ವವಹಿತಧಿಯಾ ತದ್ವದೇವಾಭಿಧಾನಂ||

(Kāvyālankāra, I, 59).

excellently composed, prove useless in the absence of worthy scholars to appreciate it.'1

A few words may be said here about the Poetical conventions (Kavi-samaya) dealt with in four sections in the fifth chapter of Kāvyāvalōkana. The first section treats of those conceits which, though they have no foundation in fact, are still embodied in poetry as if they were true, e.g., the Chakora bird drinking the moonlight, lotuses growing in rivers, swans and other birds haunting all receptacles of water. The second section deals with those things which, though they undoubtedly exist, are considered as non-existent for practical purposes, e.g., the fruit in the Asoka tree, the Jati flower in spring, the blooming of lilies during the day. The third section speaks of the limitation with regard to time or place which the convention of the poet imposes upon certain things, though no such limitation exists in nature. example, the sandal tree is described as growing only in the Malaya Mountain; and the cuckoo is supposed to cry only in spring. The last section refers to the identity assumed by poets between things which are different from each other. For instance, identity is assumed between the hare and the antelope in the description of the moon's spot; and between the fish and the makara in describing the crest of the God of Love.

A great poem has to treat of the following 18 subjects, which are styled its *angas* or limbs or constituents:

ಉದಧಿ ಪುರಾಧಿನ ಸುತ ಮಂ | ತ್ರ ದೂತ ಗಮನಾಜಿ ವಿರಹ ವರಿಣಯ ಸುರತ | ತರ್ು ದಿನೇಶ ಚಂದ್ರ ಮಧು ಕುಧೃ | ದುದಕ ವಸಸ್ಪತಿಯೆ ಕೃತಿಗೆ ಸದಿನೆಂಟಂಗಂ || (Udayādityālankāra).

The following verse which states the subjects more

¹ ಎನಿತನೊಹಿಲ್ದು ಪೇಟ್ವ ಕವಿಯೇವನದಂ ಪೆಸರಿಟ್ಟು ಮೆಚ್ಚ ಬ | ಲ್ಲ ನನಱಿಸಲ್ಕೆ ವೇಟ್ಪು ದವನಂ ಜಗೆದೊಳ್ ಪಡೆಯಲ್ಕೆ ಬಾರದಾ || ತನ ಮುಖದಿಂದಮಲ್ಲ ದದು ಸಲ್ಲದು ಕಟ್ಟಿಯುಮೇನೊ ಮಾಲಿಗಾ | ಆನ ಪೊಸಬಾಸಿಗಂ ಮುಡಿವ ಭೋಗಿಗಳಿಲ್ಲದೆ ಬಾಡಿಪೋಗೆದೇ ||

Cp ಪರಿಹೇತರಿ ನಷ್ಟಲೋಚನೇ ಸಫಲಃ ಕಿಂನು ಕಳತ್ರವಿಭ್ರಮಃ || Cp also ಆಪರಿತೋಷಾದ್ವಿದುಷಾಂ ನ ಸಾಧು ಮನ್ನೇ ಪ್ರಯೋಗವಿಜ್ಞಾನಂ || clearly is taken from Mallikārjuna's Sūktisudhārṇava, an anthology consisting of verses from earlier poets relating to each one of the above mentioned 18 angas.

ವಾರಿಧಿ ಪರ್ವತಂ ಪುರಮಧೀಶ್ವರಸುದ್ವಹನಂ ಕುಮಾರನಂ | ಭೋರುಹವೈರಿಮಿತ್ರರುದಯಂ ಋತು ನಂದನಮಂಬು ಸೀದು ಕಾಂ || ತಾರತಿ ಚಿಂತೆ ಮಂತ್ರ ಚರ ಯಾನ ವಿರೋಧಿಜಯಂಗಳೆಂಬಿವಂ | ಸೂರಿಗಳಂಗಮೆಂದು ಕೃತಿಯೊಳ್ ಪದಿನೆಂಟುಮನೆಯ್ದೆ ಬಣ್ಣಿ ಪರ್ ||

The sea, mountain, city, king, marriage, prince, sunrise, moonrise, seasons, pleasure-garden, sport in water, drinking, amorous intercourse, separation from the beloved, deliberation, messenger, journey and defeat of the enemy.

The terms mārga and dēsi frequently occur in Kannada literature. They seem to indicate Sanskrit and vernacular usages respectively as may be inferred from the

following stanzas from Sangītaratnākara:

ಗೀತಂ ವಾದ್ಯಂ ತಧಾ ನೃತ್ತಂ ತ್ರಯಂ ಸಂಗೀತಮುಚ್ಯತೇ | ಮಾರ್ಗೋ ದೇಶೀತಿ ತದ್ದೈಧಾ ತತ್ರ ಮಾರ್ಗಸ್ಸ ಉಚ್ಯತೇ || ಯೋ ಮಾರ್ಗಿತೋ ವಿರಿಂಚಾದ್ಯೈ ಪ್ರಯುಕ್ತೋ ಭರತಾದಿಭಿಃ | ದೇವಸ್ಯ ಪುರತಶ್ಯಂಭೋರ್ನಿಯತೋಭ್ಯುದಯಪ್ರದಃ | ದೇಶೇ ದೇಶೇ ಜನಾನಾಂ ಯದ್ರುಚ್ಯಾ ಹೃದಯರಂಜಕಂ | ಗೀತಂ ಚ ವಾದನಂ ನೃತ್ತಂ ತದ್ದೇಶೀತ್ಯಭಿಧೀಯತೇ ||

I may close this section by giving the peculiar characteristics of the Kannada Language as stated by

Keśirāja in his Sabdamanidarpaņa. He says:

Is not Kannada difficult by reason of its Gamaka-compounds, its distinction between  $\infty$ ,  $\emptyset$ , and the Sanskrit  $\infty$  or  $\emptyset$ , its agreeable euphony, its appropriate use of the locative-infinitive, its employment of words common to Sanskrit and Kannada, its distinction between va and ma and ha and pa, its use of Sanskrit themes excluding particles, its fleeting consonants, and its violation of yati or pause in verses?

¹ ಗಮಕಸಮಾಸದಿಂ ಅಬಕುಳಕ್ಷ್ಗಳದಿಂ ಶ್ರುತಿಸಹ್ಯಸಂಧಿಯಿಂ | ಸಮುಚಿತಮಾಗಿ ಬರ್ವ ಸತಿಸಪ್ತಮಿಯಿಂ ಸಮಸಂಸ್ಕೃತೋಕ್ತಿಯಿಂ || ವಮಹಪಭೇದದಿಂ ವಿರಹಿತಾವ್ಯಯಸಂಸ್ಕೃತಲಿಂಗದಿಂ ಪದೋ| ತ್ತಮಶಿಧಿಲತ್ವದಿಂ ಯತಿವಿಲಂಘನದಿಂದರಿದಲ್ತೆ ಕನ್ನಡಂ ||

#### Classes of Poets

Kannada poets may be roughly classed as Jainas, Vīrasaivas and Brāhmaņas. There are also authors of other sects, but their number is comparatively small. The earliest cultivators of the language for literary purposes were the Jainas and down to the 12th century, we have, with very few exceptions, only Jaina authors. For about three centuries after that period, we have along with them a few Brāhmana writers and a pretty large number of Virasaiva authors, and from about the 15th century date numerous Brāhmanical and Vīraśaiva works. There were, however, during these later periods, some compositions by the Jainas, but most of the literature of later times originated with the other sects. The leading characteristic of the Jaina earlier works is that they are champū-kāvyas or poems in a variety of composite metres interspersed with paragraphs in prose. The Jainas also wrote particular compositions such as chattana, bedande and melvādu which have not come down to us. In Jaina works of a later period the sāngatya and shatpadi metres are largely used as in Brāhmanical and Vīrašaiva works. The earlier Vīraśaiva works are mostly in the form of vachanas or poetical prose, and occasionally in the ragale and tripadi metres. The vachanas are written in simple, lucid, vigorous prose with the object of popularising religious and philosophical truths. The most recent compositions of all the sects are mostly in the form of Yakshagānas or rustic dramas interspersed with songs, and some in prose only. There were also some female authors in all the sects.

#### A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF KANNADA LITERATURE

We shall now take a bird's-eye view of Kannada literature century by century, from the 9th to the 18th.

### Authors of the 9th Century

We have already spoken of Nripatunga as the author of Kavirājamārga. He evidently took a great interest in the Kannada country, people and language. Of the poets named by him, Srīvijaya, who is mentioned as the author

of Chandraprabha-purāṇa by Mangarasa III and Doḍḍaiya and highly praised by Durgasimha (c. 1025)¹, and who appears to be named in Kavirājamārga itself, may belong to the early part of this century. Gunavarma I, the author of Sūdraka, Harivamśa and other works which are quoted from by later writers, was patronised by the Ganga King Ereyappa (886–913) whom he has identified with the ancient King Sūdraka in his work of that name.

#### Authors of the 10th Century

It is not possible to do more than briefly name some of the principal Kannada authors who followed and their chief works, with dates where they are known. Pampa I, deservedly regarded as the greatest of Kannada poets, wrote Adipurāna and Vikramārjunavijaya in 941. The latter work is also known as Pampa-Bhārata in which the author has identified his patron, a Chālukya prince named Arikesari, with Arjuna and made him the hero. He states that his Bhārata and Adipurāna put all former poems under their feet and that he completed the one in six months and the other in three months. He was the descendant of a Jaina from the Vengi country. Ponna, who wrote Santipurana, claims to be superior to all other poets in command of both Kannada and Sanskrit. He received the title, Kavichakravarti, from the Rāshtrakūta King Krishna III (939-68). In 978, we have Chāvundaraya, the author of Chāvundarāya-purāna, an excellent specimen of prose composition of that period. It gives an account of the 24 Tirthankaras. Next came Ranna, the author of Ajitapurāņa (993) and of Sāhasabhīmavijaya, also known as Gadāyuddha, the hero of which is the Chālukya prince Satyāśraya. Ranna received the title Kavichakravarti from the Chalukya King Tailapa (973-97). At the same time as the two preceding we have Nagavarma I, who was the author of Chhandombudhi, the first work extant on prosody, and probably also of Kādambari, a close metrical version of Bāna's Sanskrit

¹ ಶ್ರೀವಿಜಯರ ಕವಿಮಾರ್ಗಂ | ಭಾವಿಪ ಕವಿಜನದ ಮನಕ ಕನ್ನಡಿಯುಂ ಕೆ | ಯ್ದು ವಿಗೆಯುಮಾದುದು.

work. To the close of the same century may be assigned Gajānkuśa, Manasija and Chandrabhatta, who, though their works have not come down to us, are honorably mentioned as eminent poets by later writers. All the authors mentioned were Jainas.

#### Authors of the 11th Century

In the 11th century have to be placed Srīdharā-chārya, who wrote Jātakatilaka, the first work on astrology in the language, in 1049, during the rule of the Chālukya King Āhavamalla or Trailōkyamalla (1042–68); and Sāntinātha, who completed his poem Sukumāracharita in 1068 during the reign of the Chālukya King Bhuvanaikamalla (1068–76). These two were Jaina poets. Among the Brāhman authors of the century may be mentioned Durgasimha, the author of Panchatantra, who was the minister for peace and war of the Chālukya King Jayasimha-Jagadēkamalla I (1018–42); and Chandrarāja, who wrote Madanatilaka, under the patronage of Māchirāja, a feudatory of the same king. Chandrarāja seems to have been a versatile scholar who wrote on a variety of subjects. There are not many names—in this century, owing probably to the check caused by the Chōla invasions.

#### Authors of the 12th Century

The 12th century, when Mysore was restored to Kannada rule under the Hoysalas, seems to have been specially prolific in Kannada works of high excellence. Nāgachandra or Abhinava-Pampa, author of Rāmachandracharitapurāṇa, also known as Pampa Rāmāyaṇa, and of Mallinātha-purāṇa; Rājāditya, author of Vyavahāragaṇita and other mathematical works; Kīrtivarma, a Chālukya prince, author of Gōvaidya, the earliest veterinary work in the language; Nagavarma II, the Kaṭakācharya (poet-laureate) of the Chālukya king Jagadēkamalla II and author of several important works on the language, namely, Kāvyāvalōkana, a comprehensive work on poetics, Karṇāṭaka-Bhāshābhūshaṇa, a grammar in Sanskrit sutras, and Vastukōśa, lexicon giving Kannada equivalents of Sanskrit words; Jagaddaļa-

sōmanātha, author of the medical work Karnāṭaka-Kalyāṇakāraka, the earliest work on medicine; Nēmi-chandra, author of a romance called Līlāvati and a Purāṇa named Ardhanēmi from its being only half-finished; and Aggaļa, author of Chandraprabha-purāṇa

—were all Jainas, as well as the poetess Kanti.

Among writers of other faiths at this time, may be mentioned the Brāhmaṇa poets Rudrabhatta, author of Jagannātha-vijaya, who wrote under the patronage of Chandramauli, minister of the Hoysaļa King Ballāļa II, Kāma, author of Sringāra-ratnākāra, a work on poetics; and Dēva, author of the romance Kusumāvaļi. The Chōla Prince Udayāditya, author of a small work on rhetoric named after him, also comes here. Among the Vīraśaiva writers of this century are Basava, Chennabasava, Prabhudēva, Siddharāma, Konḍagūļi-Kēśirāja and a host of others including a pretty large number of women, who have mostly written vachanas; Harīśvara, author of Girijā-kalyāna and other works; Rāghavānka, his nephew, author of Hariśchandra-Kāvya and other works in the shaṭpadi metre; Kereya-Padmarasa, author of Dīkshā-bōdhe in the ragaļe metre; and Pālkurike-Sōmanātha, author of Sīlasampādane and other works, who has also written in Telugu.

#### Authors of the 13th Century

In the 13th century, we find a group of excellent Jaina poets, all closely related to one another, patronised by the Hoysala kings. Janna, author of Yaśōdhara-charita (1209) and Anantanāthapurāṇa (1230), who received the title Kavichakravarti from Ballāla II, was the son of Sumanōbāṇa, the poet-laureate of Narasimha II; his sister's husband, Mallikārjuna, wrote the anthology Sūkti-sudhārṇava for the recreation of King Sōmēśvara; and his son, Kēśirāja, was the author of the standard Kannaḍa grammar Sabdamaṇidarpaṇa. Other Jaina poets of this period were Pārśva-panḍita, author of Pārśvanā-thapurāṇa; Guṇavarma II, author of Pushpadanta-purāṇa; Āṇḍayya, author of Kabbigara-kāva, a work of special interest from its being written in pure Kannaḍa without

the admixture of Sanskrit words as such, though tadbhavas are largely used; Kumudēndu, author of Kumudēndu-Rāmāyaṇa in the shatpadi metre; Ratṭakavi, author of Raṭṭamata, a work on meteorology and omens; and Siśu-Māyaṇa, author of Tripura-dahana and Anjanā-charite, works written for the first time in the sāngatya metre, intended to be sung to the accompaniment of some musical instrument.

Of other writers of this period may be named Polāļvadandanātha, author of Hari-charitra, who was successively the minister of Ballāla II and Narasimha II, and built the Hariharēśvara temple at Harihar (1224); and Chaundarasa, author of Abhinava-Daśakumāra-charite, a metrical version of Dandi's Sanskrit work, Nalacharite and other works. The only Vīraśaiva writer of importance in this century was Sōmarāja, author of Udbhaṭakāvya (1222).

#### Authors of the 14th Century

The 14th century produced, among others, the Jaina poets Nāgarāja, author of Punyāsrava (1331); Bāhubali-paṇḍita, author of Dharmanātha-purāṇa (1352); Mangarāja I, author of Khagēndramaṇidarpaṇa, a work on taxicology; Madhura, author of Dharmanātha-purāṇa, who was patronised by Mudda-daṇḍanatha, minister of Harihara II and Lakshmīdhara, minister of Dēvarāya I; and Vrittavilāsa, author of Dharmaparīkshe and Sāstra-sāra; the Brāhmaṇa poets, Mangarāja II; author of Mangarāja-nighanṭu (1398), a metrical lexicon giving Kannaḍa meanings of Sanskrit words; Abhinava-Chandra, author of the veterinary work Aśva-vaidya; Kavi Malla, author of Manmathavijaya; and the Vīraśaiva poets Bhīmakavi, author of Basava-purāṇa (1969) and Padmaṇānka, author of Padmarāja-purāṇa.

## Authors of the 15th Century

From the 15th century, the authors become too numerous to allow of more than a few of the principal

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cp. the Telugu Yayatıcharıtıe of the sixteenth century by Ponnaganti Teluganna and the Achcha-Tenugu Rāmāyana of the 18th century by Kuchımanchi Tımmakavı.

ones being named. Among the Jaina poets, who are rarely met with from this century onwards, may be mentioned as belonging to this time, Bhāskara, author of Jīvandhara-charite (1424); Kalyāṇakīrti, author of Jīvāna-chandrābhyudaya (1439); Vijayaṇna, author of Dvā-daśānuprēkshe (1448); Bommarasa of Terakanāmbi, author of Sanatkumāracharite; and Srīdharadēva, author of the medical work, Vaidyāmrita. Among the Brāhmans were Kumāra-Vyāsa, author of Karṇāta-Bhārata; Kumāra-Vālmīki, author of Torave-Rāmāyaṇa; Mādhava, author of Mādhavālankāra; a translation of Daṇḍi's Kāvyādarśa; and Īśvara-kavi, also known as Bāṇa-kavi, author of Kavijihvā-bandhana, a work on prosedy.

Among the Vīraśaiva poets may be named Dēparāja, author of a collection of romances called Sobagina-sōne; Chāmarasa, author of Prabhulingalīle: Guru-Basava, author of Sivayogānga-bhūshana and other works; Chandra-kavi; author of Virūpakshāsthāna; Bommarasa, author of Saundara-purāṇa; Kallarasa, author of Janavaśya, also called Madanatılaka; Nīlakaṇṭhāchārya, author of Ārādhya-charitra; Chaturmukha-Bommarasa, author of Rēvaṇasiddhēsvara-purāṇa; Singirāja, author of Malabasavarāja-charitra; Nijaguṇa-Sivayōgi, author of Arubhavasāra and other works; and Suranga-kavi, author of Triśashṭi-purātanara-Charitre, giving an account of the sixty-three devotees of Siva.

## Authors of the 16th Century

The 16th century saw a prolific production of works of the Vīraśaivas, though authors of other sects were not idle. Among the Vīraśaivas were Mallaṇārya of Gubbi, author of Bhāvachintāratna (1513) and Vīraśaivāmritapurāṇa (1530); Nanjuṇḍa, author of Kumārarāma-charite; Chēramānka, author of Chēramakāvya; Lingamantri, author of the lexicon, Kabbigarakaipiḍi; Vīrabhadrarāja, author of Vīrabhadra-vijaya and other works; Chennabasavānka, author of Mahādēviyakkanapurāṇa; Nanjuṇḍa of Kikkēri, author of Bhairavēśvara-Kāvya; Sadāsiva-Yōgi, author of Rāmanātha-vilāsa;

lexicon Karnāṭakaśabdamañjari and other works; and Virūpākshapaṇḍita (1584), author of Chennabasvapurāna.

Among the Jainas were Mangarasa III, author of Jayanripa-kāvya and other works; Abhinava-Vādividyānanda, author of the anthology Kāvyasāra; Sālva, author of Bhārata, Rasaratnākara and other works; Ratnākaravarņi, author of Bharatesvara Charite and other works; Dēvōttama, author of the lexicon, Nanārtharatnākara; and Sāntarasa, author of Yōgaratnākara; and among Brāhmaṇas, Timmanṇa-kavi, author of the latter portion of Bhārata; Sadānanda-yōgi, author of portions of Bhāgavata and Bhārata; Purandaradāsa, author of numerous songs in praise of Vishņu; Tirumala-Bḥatta, author of Sīva-gīte; and Timma, author of Navarasālankāra; among others Rāmēndra, author of Saundarya-Kathāratna, a metrical version in the īripadi metre of Battīsaputtaļikathe; and Kanakadasa, author of Mōhanatarangīni and other works as well as songs.

## Authors of the 17th Century

In the 17th century the literary output of the Brāhmaṇas was greater than that of the writers of other religious denominations. A remarkable development of Kannada literature also took place in the latter part of the century during the rule of Chikkadevaraja Ödeyar (1672-1704), one of the most distinguished kings of Mysore, who was not only a great patron of literary merit, but also an author himself. Two of the ministers, Tirumalārya and Chikkupādhyāya, have not only written works of great excellence but have also encouraged others to write good works. Among Tirumalārya's works may be mentioned Apratimavīra-charite, a rhetorical work in praise of the king, Chikkadevarāja-vijaya, a Champū work describing the king's conquests, and Chikkadēvarāja-vamśāvaļi, a prose work giving an account of the king's ancestors. Chikkupādhyāya may be said to be the most voluminous writer in Kannada, his works being more than thirty in number. Among the more important were Vishņu-purāņa (1691), Kamalāchaļamā-kātmya (1680), Hastigiri-māhātmya (1679), Rukmāngadacharite (1681) and Sātvikabrahmavidyāvilāsa, a work on Viśishtādvaita philosophy. Singarārya, brother of Tirumalārya, wrote a drama called Mitravindāgōvinda. Among other poets that were patronised by the king or his ministers were Timmakavi, author of Yādavagirimāhātmya (1677) and other works; Mallikārjuna, author of Srīranga-māhātmya (1678); Mallarasa, author of Daśāvatāra Charite, and the poetess, Srīrangamma, who wrote Padminī Kalyāṇa. There was likewise at the court an Okkaliga poetess, Honnamma, who composed Hadibadeya Dharma, a work on the duties of a faithful wife. Among the remaining Brāhmaṇa poets of this century were Rāmachandra, author of Āśvaśāstra; Tirumalevaidya, author of Uttara Rāmāyaṇa; Nāgarasa, author of Bhagavadgīte; Timmarasa, author of Kshētragaṇita or Geometry and Lakshmīśa author of Jaimini Bhārata, which is probably the most popular poem in the language.

Among the Jainas were Bhāttakaļanka, author of Karņāṭaka Sabdānuśāsana (1604), an exhaustive grammar of the language in Sanskrit sūtras, with an extensive Sanskrit commentary; Padmana-paṇḍita, author of Hayasārasamuchchaya; Chidānanda, author of Munivamśābhyudaya; and Chandrasēkhara, author of Rāmachandracharitra. The Vīraśaiva poets of note of the century were Harīśvara, author of Prabhudēva-purāṇa; Siddhanañjēsa, author of Rāghavānka-Charitra and Gururāja Charitra; Pemmisetti or Prāsabhūshana, author of Gurubhaktāṇḍāra Charitre; Mummaḍi Tamma, author of Sankara Samhita; Parvatēśvara, author of Chaturāchāryapurāṇa; Shadaksharadēva, author of Rājaśekhara-Vilāsa (1655), a poem which appears to divide with the Jaimini Bhārata the honour of being the most popular work in Kannaḍa, Vrishabhēndra-vijaya and Sabaraśankara-vilāsa; and Sejjeya Siddhalingārya, author of Malayarāja-charite. Sarvajña, author of the popular tripadi verses going by his name, may also be assigned to this century.

## Authors of the 18th Century

The 18th century witnessed the rise of a popular kind of literature, Yakshagānas, though there is evidence to show that one or two of them were written in the latter part of the previous century. These are opera pieces or rude forms of dramatic representation suited to rustic audiences. As a rule, they are characterised neither by dramatic skill nor by literary merit. The works are mostly based on some incident or other of that inexhaustible store-house of old stories, the Purāṇas, and are generally acted in villages to the immense joy of the masses. It is not to be understood that there were no other kinds of literature during this period, though the number of Jaina and Vīraśaiva authors of any merit was very small. Among the Brāhmaṇa writers were Lakshmakavi, author of Bhārata and Rukmāngada-charite; Venkateśa, author of the Champu work, Hālāsya-māhātmya; Kōnayya, author of Krishnārjuna Sangara; Timmāmātya, author of a Rāmāyaņa called Rāmābhyudaya-Kathākusumamañjari; Bālavaidyada Cheluva, author of Kannada Līlāvati and Ratnaśāstra, a treatise on precious stones; and the poetess, Helavanakatte Giriyamma, who wrote Chandrahasanakathe and other works.

Among the Vīraśaivas may be mentioned Śankarakavi, author of Chōrabasava-charitre and Nūronda, author of Saundara-kāvya: among the Jainas, Pāyaṇṇa, author of Ahimsācharite, Padmarāja, author of Pūjyapāda-charite (1792); Padmanābha, author of Rāmachandra-charitre; and Surāļa, author of Padmāvati-charitre; and among others Kaļale-Nanjarāja, author of Kakudgiri-māhātmya and other works; Jayēndra, author of Karnāṭaka-Kuva-layānanda; and the poetess Cheluvāmbe, Queen of the Mysore King, Krishṇaraja Oḍeyar I, who composed Varanandīkalyāṇa and other works. The century was also remarkable for the number of popular devotional songs known as Dāsara-padagaļu composed by devotees of Vishnu, especially of the Mādhava sect.

#### The Modern Period

In the 19th century, a great impetus was given to the advancement of Kannada literature during the rule of the Mysore King, Krishnaraja Odeyar III, who was a munificent patron of all kinds of literary merit and afforded special encouragement to the production of Kannada versions of all the more important Sanskrit works. He was himself a voluminous writer, about forty Kannada works being attributed to him, of which may be mentioned a poetical romance named Saugandhikāparinaya. Under his patronage, the number of Yakshagānas increased and gained popularity. Aļīya-Lingarāja haswritten nearly thirty Yakshaganas besides a few poems, such as the Prabhāvatīparinava, which are of considerable literary merit. The Jaina author, Devachandra, wrote in 1838 the Rajāvaļikathe, a cyclopædia of Jaina traditional history and chronology, at the instance of Devirammanni, a Queen of the Mysore Royal Family. Chandrasagaravarni, author of the Kadambapurāna and other works, was a voluminous Jaina writer. The last quarter of the century may be said to have witnessed a revival Kannada learning. Under the late Chāmarājēndra Odeyar of Mysore, encouragement was given to the production of dramatic works of a high order, which were put on the stage. Educated men have begun in earnest to enrich Kannada literature by writing original works, translations or adaptations. Among modern poets who have made valuable additions to the stock of works in the language may be mentioned Basappa Sāstri, S. G. Narasimhāchārya, Nandalige Lakshmīnāranappa, Dhōndo Narasimha Mulabāgilu and Sānta Kavi or Bālāchārya Sakkari. B. Venkaţāchārya has added many useful prose works to Kannada literature which afford healthy reading to the public

This survey of Kannada literature, though necessarily brief, is enough to bring to view its vast extent which does not at all compare unfavourably with that of any

other vernacular of the South

#### CHAPTER III

#### CONNECTION OF KANNADA LITERATURE WITH THOSE OF TELUGU, TAMIL AND SANSKRIT

Connection of Kannada and Telugu Literatures

THE connection between Kannada and Telugu literatures appears to be much closer than that between Kannada and Tamil literatures. One of the reasons for this may be that the Chalukyas ruled over both the Karnāta and Andhra countries and patronised both the languages. Several Telugu authors have also written in Kannada and vice versa. The metre Akkara which seems to be peculiar to Kannada is found in early Telugu works and inscriptions such as Nannavya-Bhatta's *Bhārata* and the Bezwada Pillar inscription of Yuddhamalla. Two of the early Kannada poets. viz., Pampa I (941) and Nāgavarma I (c. 990) were descendants of men who belonged to Vengimandala. We learn from an inscription which records the grant of a village in 1053 by the Eastern Chāļukya King Rājarāja to Nārāyaņa-Bhatta, who helped Nannayya-Bhatta in the composition of the Telugu Bhārata, that Nārāyaņa-Bhatta was also a Kannada poet.1 Pālkurike Somanātha and Vērnulavāda Bhīma-Kavi, who were great Telugu poets, have written Kannada works also: the former Silasampādane, etc., and the latter, Basavapurāņa. Piduparti Somanātha has translated into Telugu the Kannada Prabhulingalīle of Chāmarasa. The fact of the matter is that Telugu scholars of that period were also well-versed in Sanskrit and Kannada and it is on account of this familiarity with Kannada that the poet Srinatha describes his Telugu as Kannada.2 He calls

¹ ಯಃ ಸಂಸ್ಕೃತ ಕರ್ಣಾಟ ಪ್ರಾಕೃತ ಪೈಶಾಚಕಾಂಧ್ರಭಾಷಾಸು | ಕವಿರಾಜಶೇಖರ ಇತಿ ಪ್ರಧಿತಃ ಸುಕವಿತ್ವವಿಭವೇನ || ² ಪ್ರಾಢೀಬರಿಕಿಂಪ ಸಂಸ್ಕೃತ ಭಾಷಯಂಡ್ರು | ಪಲುಕು ನುಡಿಕಾರಮುನನಾಂಧ್ರಭಾಷ

ಯಂದು | ರೆವ್ನ ರೇಮನ್ನ ನಂಡ್ರು ನಾಕೇಲ ಕೊಹಿ(ತ | ನಾ ಕವಿತ್ವಂಬು ನಿಜಮು ಕರ್ಣಾಟಭಾಷ ||

himself Karņāṭadēśakaṭaka-padmavana-kēli. Nannechōḍa, Piduparti Basava, Dhūrjaṭi, and other Telugu poets knew Kannaḍa also, as can be inferred from their works. In his Śringāra Naishadha, Srīnātha applies the Kannaḍa title Svāmidrōharaganḍa to the minister Nāmāmātya. Nannechōḍa (c. 1150) uses in his Kumārasambhava several Kannaḍa words. He was a Chōḷa Chief, son of Chōḷaballi, perhaps identical with Mallidēva Chōḷa named in Challakere 43, of 1108, and Challakere 21, of 1147. The Kannada words used by him are Nāyi (dog), dēsi (beauty),¹ venchalu (pond, cp. bench¹) and Kolavēlu for Kolavēr (cuscus grass).² The chief Baddena (c. 1260), who wrote Nītisāstramuktāvali, had the Kannaḍa title

Annanagandhavārana.

Of the Kannada poets who were also Telugu scholars or authors may be mentioned Nīlakanthāchārya (c. 1485), who has translated into Kannada Shatpadi, the Telugu Panditārādhyacharite in dvipadi of Pālkurike Sōmanātha; Pemmisetti (c. 1650), who has likewise translated the Telugu Gurubhaktāndāra Charite in dvipadi of Pālkurike Somanatha into Kannada shatpadi; Chakrapani Ranganātha (c. 1195), who wrote Srīgirināthavikrama in Telugu; Tirumalabhatta (c. 1600), whose metrical translation of Sivagīte is based on Harihārāradhva's Telugu commentary on the work; and Mummadi Tamma (c. 1665), a chief of Sugațur who wrote the Telugu works Rājēndrachōlacharıte, Kumārārjunīya, Saundarēśacharite. are, further, Hubballi Šangayya (c. 1700), Vīrarāja (c. 1720), Kalale Nanjarāja (c. 1740) and Sālyada Krishnarāja, among others, who were likewise Telugu scholars. Among modern authors may be named Venkaṭaramaṇaiya (1857), who wrote *Gayōpakhyāna* in Kannaḍa and Adhyātma-Rāmāyāna in Telugu.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ಭಾಸುರಾಂಗಮುಲಿಂತ ದೇಸಿಯಗುನೇ.

<sup>2</sup> It is ವೆಟ್ಟಿವೇಳ್ಲು in Telugu Mr. Vīrēšalingam Pantalu took *Kaṇḍavadam* used by Nannechōda also for a Kannada word, but it is a *tadbhava* of the Sanskrit Kāndanata

#### Connection of Kannada and Tamil Literatures

Such interchanges between Kannada and Tamil literatures are, however, very few. Amritasāgara, a Jaina Tamil poet, who flourished before the 11th century, states in his Yāpparungalakkārigai, a work on prosody, that there existed in the Kannada Language a work on prosody named Guna-gānkiyam and that the Tamil work adopted some of its characteristics, one of which was addressing the rules to a woman.1 Unfortunately, the name of the author is not given, nor has the work come down to us. It is very probable that this author dedicated his work to the Eastern Chālukya King, Vijayāditya III (844-88), who had the distinctive epithets, Gunaga, Gunaganka, and Gunakenalla. This would be the earliest work on prosody in Kannada. Mallaņārya of Gubbi (1513) says that his poem Bhāvachintāratna is a Kannada rendering of the Tamil account of King Satyendrachola, narrated by Tirujñānasambandha to Kulachcharaiya after confuting Jainism. And Sivaprakāśasvāmi of the 17th century has written metrical translations of the Kannada works, the Prabhulingalīle of Chāmarasa and the Vivēkachintāmani (only the Vēdānta-parichchēda) of Nijagunasivayogi. The latter version is styled Vēdāntachūlāmani.

It may be added here that every one of the South-Indian languages has numerous translations of Sanskrit works. In Kannada the Jainas and Brāhmaṇas have translated more Sanskrit works than the Vīraśaivas. This can be verified by a mere glance at the list of works given in the volumes of the Karnātaka Kavicharite. In these circumstances it is interesting to note some instances of Kannada works having been translated into Sanskrit.

Nirvāṇa-Mantri (c. 1725), the minister of the Keladi chief, Sōmaśēkhara Nāyaka (1714-39), translated into Sanskrit portions of Nijaguṇaśivayōgi's Vivēkachintāmani; and Srīmat-Paramahamsa Bālakṛishna Brahmānanda-Rājayōgi translated into Sanskrit Ranganātha's Anubhavāmrīta in 1813.

<sup>&#</sup>x27; ಗುಣಗಾಂಕಿಯವುನ್ನು ಂ ಕರುನಾಟಕಚ್ಚಂವವೇ ಪೇಲ್ ಮಗಡೂಉಮುನ್ನಿ ಲೈ ಯುಡೈತ್ತಾಯ್ ಅವೈಯಡಕ್ಕ ಮುಡೈತ್ತಾಯ್ |

#### Criticisms

It gives me much pleasure to see that several scholars have now begun to take interest in Kannada literature, though at the time when I began to write the Kavicharite there were very few people interested in the study of this subject. I am also glad to see in journals and newspapers criticisms made by some scholars with regard to my work. In a work of this magnitude, involving a great deal of study and investigation, it is but natural that there should be found mistakes here and there; and I shall only be too grateful to scholars who help me in rectifying them and thus making the work more useful. Of these critics, Dr. A. Venkatasubbaiya, M.A., Ph.D., LL.B., has to be given the first place as he has paid the greatest possible attention to my work, especially the first volume, his criticisms extending over nearly 280 printed These criticisms are published in the issues of the Prabuddha Karṇātaka. They have also been collected together and issued in the form of a book. Some of the Doctor's criticisms, such as those relating to the age of the poets, Durgasimha, Chandraraja, Rajaditya and Vrittavilāsa, as also those regarding my identification of some Jaina gurus, are perfectly reasonable. There are others, however, which are based on very weak grounds due to a misunderstanding of the points at issue, while there are others still which, I am constrained to say, are nothing but the outcome of a prejudiced mentality solely intent on fault-finding. Though many of the criticisms are not thus of much value, I have still to thank the Doctor for having given me an opportunity of re-examining my position. The Doctor has called in question the accuracy of my accounts of about 35 authors on the It is not possible for me in to-day's lecture to say all that I have to say with regard to his criticisms and those of other scholars. I shall examine only a few important points among them to-day. But before beginning this work I should like to quote two Sanskrit stanzas in this connection:

ಗಚ್ಛತಃ ಸ್ಪಲನಂ ಕ್ರಾಪಿ ಭವತ್ಯೇವ ಪ್ರಮಾದತಃ | ಹಸಂತಿ ದುರ್ಜನಾಸ್ತತ್ರ ಸಮಾದಧತಿ ಸಜ್ಜನಾಃ || ದೋಷಾನುತ್ಸೃಜ್ಭ ಜ್ಯೋಷ್ಣ್ಹ ಸ್ತುಷ್ಯಂತಿ ಗುಣಲೇಶತಃ | ಹಂಸಾ ಇವಾಂಬುವಯಸೋರ್ಮೇಳನೇ ದುಗ್ದ ಪಾಯಿನಃ ||

From this it is not to be understood that I want my mistakes to be overlooked or ignored. What I mean is that sympathy must form a factor in offering criticism if it is intended that it should bear fruit. But in the case of the Doctor I regret to say that it is accompanied very often with ridicule and derision without any cause whatsoever. I shall now begin to answer briefly some of the more important of the criticisms:

- 1. Nāgachandra, pp. 33-56.
- 2. Karņapārya, pp. 71-86.
- 3. Rudrabhatta, pp. 94-115.
- 4. Sumanōbāņa, pp. 124-49.

#### Nāgachandra

The period assigned to Nāgachandra by the Doctor, namely, the close of the 10th or the beginning of the 11th century, is evidently due to a misconception. He thinks that Durgasimha, whom he assigns to the period 1024-42, has praised Nāgachandra. This is not so, the poet praised by Durgasimha being Pampa, who is doubtless the author of Adipurāṇa and not Abhinava-Pampa. Having once made this assumption the Doctor has been at considerable pains to find arguments for supporting it and for demolishing my position that Nāgachandra lived at about 1100. I give below a few facts which strengthen the position taken up by me:

(1) According to the Doctor, Nāgachandra lived before 1024, either at the close of the 10th or the beginning of the 11th century. Nāgachandra, however, praises Ajitapurāṇa which Ranna wrote in 993, and the way in which he praises it, namely, as the jewel of a poem (Kritiratna), clearly shows that it could not be the work of a contemporary. For the work to attain to such celebrity some reasonable period, say at least half a

century, has to be postulated. This makes it impossible for Nāgachandra to have lived before 1024. Again, Durgasimha, who lived at about 1024, does not mention Ranna, evidently because he was then too recent a poet to deserve mention. Such being the case, is it conceivable that Nāgachandra, who preceded Durgasimha (c. 1024), would praise Ranna's work in such flattering terms? We are thus led to the conclusion that the assumption of the Doctor is untenable.

(2) There is an important statement made by Karnapārya, the author of Nēmināthapurāna (I, 101), about Nāgachandra which affords decisive evidence about his period, namely, that though Nagachandra was a modern (adyatana) poet, he was equal to ancient poets. The word modern can only mean that Nagachandra lived very recently, say about a generation before Karnapārya. period I have assigned to Karnaparya being c. 1140 (I, 139), the period of Nagachandra may be taken to be roughly 1100. But according to the Doctor, who assigns 1174 as the date of Karnapārya (p. 85), the date of Nāgachandra would be about half a century later than that assigned to him by me. Such being the case, is it reasonable to suppose that Karnaparya would call Nagachandra who, according to the Doctor, lived before 1024, a modern poet?

(3) Nāgachandra praises a Jaina Guru named Mēghachandra-traividya in I, 20 of his Rāmāyaṇa, and we learn from Sravaṇa Belgola inscription 127, of about 1115, that the same guru died in 1115. There can be no manner of doubt about the identity of the guru, since the verse in which Nāgachandra praises him also occurs in connection with the guru in the inscription. If Nāgachandra had lived before 1024, would it have been possible for him to praise a man who died nearly a century after that period? The Doctor tries to get over the difficulty by making the curious statement that the composers of the inscriptions kept quiet for a full century and then began to use the verses of Nāgachandra in connection with other gurus of the same name (p. 47). This is simply ridiculous and a gratuitous insult to Jaina writers. The

natural inference is that Nāgachandra lived at about 1100. This will easily explain the instance of Srutakīrti given

by the Doctor (p. 45).

(4) An author named Mēghachandra is stated to have written in 1148 an easy Kannada commentary on Pūjyapāda's Samādhi-śataka for the use of the son of the celebrated Pampa (Ind. Ant., XII. 20). The reference here is clearly to Nāgachandra and the statement fixes his period as about 1100. This Mēghachandra is most probably identical with the one mentioned in Sravaṇa Belgoļa 66 as the oldest disciple of Nayakīrti and as a colleague of Adhyātmi-Bālachandra. The doctor's statement that Adhyātmi-Bālachandra lived in 1231 has no basis to stand upon.

(5) Finally, as already stated by me (I, 449), there is every probability of the inscription of Vikramāditya VI (1076–1126), No. A. 23, kept in the Bijapur Museum, having been written by Nāgachandra, judging from the close similarity in idea and expression of several verses of the inscription to those in *Pampa-Rāmāyaṇa* (see p. 36 below.) This fact, too, leads us to the inference that

Nāgachandra should have flourished at about 1100.

There are also a few more points dealt with by the Doctor incidentally in his article on Nāgachandra (pp. 36-42 and 52-56), which have now to be briefly noticed. He rightly criticises my identification of some of the Taina Gurus with others of the same name, such as that of Mēghachandra-traividya of S.B. 127, who died in 1115, with his namesakes mentioned in S.B. 69 and 66, and that of Balachandra of Vakra-gachchha with Subhakīrti's father Bālachandra of S.B. 140 (I, 102-3). My chief object in this connection has been to show that there were two Balachandras, one of Vakra-gachchha who was the guru of Nāgachandra and lived at about 1100, and the other of Pustaka-gachchha who lived at about 1180. The Doctor, however, makes the assumption that these two gurus were contemporaries and tries to adjust facts to this preconceived notion of his. He begins by stating (p. 36) that the date of S.B. 69, given by me as about 1100, must be about 1180. This inscription is not dated. It tells us that Bālachandra of Vakra-gachchha was a colleague of Gauladēva, who was a disciple of Gōpanandi, though at the close it likewise says that he was a colleague of Triratnanandi, a disciple of Māghanandi who was a colleague of Gōpanandi. In either case it is clear that Bālachandra of Vakra-gachchha came immediately after Gōpanandi and was not removed from him by a long interval of time. Now, Chennarāyapaṭṇa 148 records a grant to this same Gōpanandi by the Hoysala King Ereyanga, son of Vinayāditya, in 1094. Consequentlytheperiodof Bālachandra of Vakra-gachchha may safely be taken to be about 1100 which is exactly the date that I have assigned to S.B. 69. And this must also be the approximate period of his disciple

Nāgachandra.

The Doctor quotes three inscriptions in support of his assumption that Vakra-gachchha Balachandra was a contemporary of Adhyātmi Bālachandra who lived in about 1180. But from what has been stated above, it is clear that his assumption is wrong. Let us see what these inscriptions have to say in the matter. The first is an inscription at Kalasāpura, published on pp. 36-39 of the Mysore Archæological Report for 1923, which records a grant to a Jaina guru named Bālachandra in 1176 by Kavadamayya's Dēvisetti, on behalf of the Vīraballāla-Jinālaya erected by himself. After giving the spiritual pedigree of Vakra-gachchha Bālachandra just like S.B. 69, the inscription proceeds to say that his lay disciple was Kavadamayya's Anuvantayya and that four generations after the latter (details partly gone) came Kavadamayya's Devisetti, the donor. It will thus be seen that Vakragachchha Bālachandra, who was the guru of Kavadamayya's Anuvantayya, an ancestor of Kavadamayya's Dēvisetti, cannot be identical with Bālachandra, the contemporary of the donor. This Balachandra was evidently Adhyātmi Bālachandra who, as we know from S.B. 234, of about 1180, was a contemporary of Kavadamayya's Dēvisețti. The second inscription is Bēlūr 129 of 1196. This records a grant by certain persons for the God Mallinatha set up by them in the enclosure of the

Sāntinātha-basti erected by Kavadamayya's Dēvisetti. This grant may have been made after Devisetti's time. The inscription begins with a verse in praise of Vakra-gachchha Balachandra and states that some land was purchased by the donors from Rāmachandra, disciple of Bālachandra of Mandavi. The Doctor hastily concludes from this that Vakra-gachchha Bālachandra lived at the time of the record, i.e., in 1196 and that he was identical with Bālachandra of Mandavi. Such is not at all the case. The verse in praise of Vakra-gachchha Bālachandra occurs at the beginning because he was, as we saw in the Kalasapur inscription, the Kula-guru of Kavadamayya's Devisetti. I need not say that Balachandra of Mandavi has nothing to do with his namesake of Vakra-gachchha; nor has he anything to do with Adhyātmi Bālachandra; he appears to be a different man altogether. The third inscription, S.B. 186, registers a grant in 1231 by Gommata-Setti, son of Paduma Setti who was a lay disciple of Adhyātmi It will be seen that this grant was made Bālachandra. two generations after Adhyātmi Bālachandra and consequently there is no ground to suppose, as the Doctor has done, that he lived in 1231.

The Doctor takes me to task for using the word  $n\bar{u}ta$  in the sense, as he thinks, of  $N\bar{u}tna$  and writes two pages (53-54) on the matter for my edification. Any one who had paid some attention to the synonym abhinava given by me for  $n\bar{u}ta$  and to the distinction that I make between  $n\bar{u}ta$  and  $vin\bar{u}ta$ , which are but synonyms (I, 100), would at once see that  $n\bar{u}ta$  was but a printer's mistake for  $n\bar{u}tna$ . The Doctor may have had the charity of crediting me with a little knowledge of Sanskrit though not with as high a proficiency in it as his own.

He also asserts (pp. 55-56) that we have to believe that Nāgachandra was himself the author of Jinamunitanaya till satisfactory evidence to the contrary is forthcoming. He argues thus: 'Though there is no similarity between the style of Ponna's Sāntipurāņa and that of Jināksharamāle, the latter work is believed to be his. Similarly, Nāgachandra's authorship of Jinamunitaraya has to be believed though the styles of his other works

and this are not similar.' Any Kannada scholar who is sufficiently familiar with classical poems in that language will at once see that there is perfect similarity in the styles of Ponna's two works, whereas the styles of Nāgachandra's other works and *finamunitanaya* are as dissimilar as anything can be. He will never do the injustice of attributing such modern forms as *Kēļuva*, *pēluva chinumaya* and *koluvam* to Nāgachandra, besides grammatical errors of various kinds. I am constrained to say that in this matter the Doctor is not competent to pronounce an opinion.

Comparison of a few verses of the Bijāpur inscription with those of Pampa-Rāmāyaṇa.

## BIJĀPUR INSCRIPTION, verse 2

ಹಿರಿದಾಯಾಸಧಿನಿನೈಗಂ ತಳೆದ ಧಾತ್ರೀಭಾರಮಂ ವಿಕ್ರಮಾ | ಭರಣಂಗೊಪ್ಪಿಸಿ ಬೇಟ್ಪುದಂ ಪಡೆದುವೆಂತಾನುಂ ದಿಶಾದಂತಿ ದಿ || ಕ್ರುರಿಣೀಪೇಚಕ ಚುಂಬನೈಕ ಸುಖಮಂ ಶೇಷೋರಗಂ ಭೋಗಿನೀ | ಪರಿರಂಭೋತ್ಸವಮಂ ಪುರಾಣಕಮಠಂ ನಿದ್ರಾಂಗನಾಸಂಗಮಂ ||

## Pampa-Rāmāyaṇa, VI, 84

ಧರೆಯಂ ದ್ವಾದಶಚಕ್ರವರ್ತಿಗಳಿನಿತ್ತಲ್ ದೇವ ನಿಮ್ಮೀ ಭುಜಾ | ಪರಿಘಕ್ಕೊಪ್ಪಿಸಿ ಬೇಟ್ಪದಂ ಪಡೆದುವೆತ್ತಾನುಂ ದಿಶಾದಂತಿ ದಿ || ಕ್ಕರಿಣೀವೇಚಕ ಚುಂಒಸೈಕ ಸುಖಮಂ ಶೇಷೋರಗಂ ಭೋಗಿನೀ | ಪರಿರಂಭೋತ್ಸವಮಂ ಪುರಾಣಕಮಠಂ ನಿದ್ರಾಂಗನಾಸಂಗಮಂ ||

## BIJĀPUR INSCRIPTION, verse 20

ಆಕ್ಟೋಣೀಧರವದುವುಂ (?) ದಕ್ಷಿಣದಿಬ್ಬು ಬದೊಳಸೆವ ಶಶಿಖಂಡದವೋ | ಲೀಕ್ಷ್ಮಣಸುಖಮಯವಿ ರ್ಪುದು | ದಕ್ಷಿಣಭರತ ತ್ರಿಖಂಡದಾರ್ಯಾಖಂಡಂ ||

## PAMPA-RĀMĀYAŅA, I, 45

ಆಕ್ಸೋಣೀಧರವಲ್ಲಭ | ದಕ್ಷಿ ಣದಿಬ್ಬು ಖದೊಳೆಸೆದು ಶಶಿಖಂಡದವೋ | ಲೀಕ್ಷ ಣಸುಖಮಯಮಿರ್ಪುದು | ದಕ್ಷಿ ಣಭರತ ತ್ರಿಖಂಡದಾರ್ಯಾ ಖಂಡಂ ||

## BIJĀPUR INSCRIPTION, verse 1

ಶ್ರೀಮಚ್ಚಳುಕ್ಯವಂಶಲ | ಲಾಮಂ ಚತುರುದಧಿಮೇ ಸಿಲಾಲಂಕೃತ ಧಾ | ತ್ರೀಮಂಡಲಮಂ ವಿಕ್ರಮ | ಧಾಮಂ ನಿಜಭುಜಕ್ಯ ಪಾಣದಿಂ ರಕ್ಷಿ ಸಿದಂ ||

## PAMPA-RĀMĀYAŅA, X, 77

ಚತುರುದಧಿಮೇಖಲಾಲಂ | ಕೃತವಸುಧೆಯನಾಳ್ದು ಪಡೆದು ಸುತರಿನ್ನ ರನಾ | ಜಿತಶತ್ರು ವಿಜಯಸಾಗರ | ರತರ್ಕ್ಯಭುಜವೀರ್ಯರರಸುಗೆಯ್ಯುತ್ತಿರ್ದರ್ ||

## Pampa-Rāmāyaṇa, II, 39

ಚತ್ತರುದಧಿಮೇಖಲಾಲಂ | ಕೃತವಸುಧಾ ದೇವಿಗಜ್ಜ ಗಾಸಿನವರ್ ದಿ | ಕೃತಿಗಳಿನೆ ಸಾರ್ವಭೌಮೋ | ನೃತಿಯಂ ತಳೆದಂ ಸುಕೌಶಲಕ್ಷಿ ತಿನಾಧಂ ||

## Karnapārya

As regards Karnapārya, I may state at once that my identification of some of the gurus mentioned by him with their namesakes in the Sravana Belgola inscriptions is not quite correct. My statement that the Silāhāra King Gandarāditya had the other names Govardhana, Gopana and Srībhūshana and that he had four sons, namely, Vijayāditya, Lakshmana, Vardhamāna and Sānta must have been made on the authority of some manuscript that I have used, though the two manuscripts A. 52 and 4 of Nēmināthapurāna, now available in the Mysore Oriental Library, which are identical with each other, do not give this information. I have been trying to procure another manuscript of the work for the last six months, but without success. In the meanwhile, I may mention, however, that the Eksambi inscription of Vijayaditya, of 1165 (Mysore Archæological Report for 1916, 48-50), which has been referred to by the Doctor (p. 85), states that Vijayāditva was the eldest son of Gandaraditya, thus showing that the former had a younger brother or brothers. Further, the title Rūpanārāyana of Gandarāditya and Vijayāditya was also borne by Lakshmana (p. 80, verse 27), though he did not succeed to the throne. Again, my statement that both Karnapārya and Nēmichandra were patronised by the Ratta King Lakshmideva of Saundatti (I, Kannada Introduction, 17, Mysore Archæological Report for 1916, 50) as also the statement that the two poets wrote their works under the patronage of the Silāhāras (II, English and Kannada Introductions, 10 and 16 respectively) requires correction. Karnapārya was patronised by Lakshmana or Lakshmideva during the rule of the Silahara king

Vijayāditya and Nēmichandra by King Lakshmīdēva, son of the Ratta King of Saundatti, Kārtavīrya III. The cause of the confusion can easily be realised when one thinks of the identity of the names (Lakshmīdēva) of the two chiefs, as also of the identity of the names (Chandrikādēvi) of their wives.

With regard to the period of Karnapārya, as stated before, he wrote his work during the reign of Vijayāditya. We learn from inscriptions that Vijayāditya ruled in the years 1143, 1153 (Dynasties of Kanarese Districts, 545) and 1165 (Eksambi inscription, mentioned above). But as Karnapārya says that he wrote his work at the instance of Srībhūshana (Gaṇḍarāditya), it is likely that the composition of his work was begun sometime before 1143. I have therefore given c.1140 as the poet's date. There is no ground for the date 1174, given by the Doctor

The Doctor thinks that the titles, Paramajinamatakshīravārāśichandra and Bhavyavanajavana-mārtāṇḍa, do not belong to the poet but to his patron, Lakshmaṇa; but I do not think that Kannaḍa scholars who are familiar

with the ways of Jaina poets will agree with him.

The period of Karnapārya mentioned by Durgasimha (c.1025) as the author of *Mālavīmādhava* may be taken to be about 1000.

## Rudrabhatta

With regard to the period of Rudrabhatta (I, 269), the Doctor has come, step by step, to the conclusion that the poet wrote his work in about 1218–19 (pp. 95–115) and not in about 1180, as stated by me. Briefly his arguments may be stated thus:

(1) The earliest available inscription naming Umādēvi, the Queen of Ballāla II, is dated 1185. She could not have been his queen in 1180. So Rudrabhaṭṭa who mentions her must have written his work after 1185

(p. 101).

(2) The attribute, Paramaiśvaryāspadam, applied to Ballāļa II by the poet in the second of the invocatory verses of his *Jagannāthavijaya*, indicates that the king had the paramount title Paramēśvara when the poet

wrote. Ballāļa II began to assume paramount titles in 1190 after defeating the Sēvuņa king Bhillama. Consequently the poet must have written after 1190 (p. 102).

(3) The attribute Rājarājapratishṭhāniratam applied to Ballāļa II in the second invocatory verse, refers to the establishment of the Chōļa King Rājarāja III (1216-46) on the throne, which he had lost, during the reign of the King, by his son Narasimha II. This event together with the conquest of the Magara Kingdom must have taken place in 1217 as Nāgamangala 29, of 1218, applies the titles, Chōļarājyapratishṭhāchārya, Magararājyadiśāpaṭṭa and Pāṇdyagajakēsari, to Ballāļa II (p. 113). Ballāļa II bore these titles in consequence of the conquests made by his son Narasimha II in 1217 (p. 114). Rudrabhaṭṭa, who mentions the establishment of Rājarāja III on the throne, which took place in 1217, must have lived after that date and before the death in 1220 of Ballāļa II, i.e. in about 1218-19.

Here follow my answers to the Doctor's arguments:

(1) The fact that an inscription of 1185 mentions Umādēvi does not preclude the possibility of her having been the queen of Ballāļa II some years before the date of that inscription, say, in about 1180. An inscription of an earlier date mentioning queen Umādēvi may turn up at any moment. My date for Rudrabhaṭṭa is not exactly 1180, but about 1180, which allows a latitude of a few years on both sides.

(2) I do not believe that Rudrabhatta intended to convey the sense read into it by the Doctor by the use of the attribute, Paramaiśvaryāspadam, which merely means 'the abode of power or wealth.' If it was intended to mention the distinctive paramount title Paramēśvara, the poet would have used the form Pāramaiśvarya, the state of being Paramēśvara, with a long vowel in the first syllable. Further, paramount titles such as Chakravarti (emperor) are applied to Ballāļa II even in inscriptions of an earlier date than 1190, e.g., SB. 240, of about 1175; No. 35, Mysore Archæological Report for 1926, of 1183, No. 5, same Report for 1923, of 1185. There are likewise inscriptions of a later date than 1190 which apply

only the subordinate title Mahāmandalēśvara to the same king, e.g., Nanjangūd 71 of 1192: S.B. 335, of 1195;

Tirumakūdalu-Narasīpur 31, of 1195-96.

(3) It is not at all likely that, as stated by the Doctor, Rudrabhatta had in his mind the establishment of the Chōla King, Rājarāja III (1216-46), on the throne by Ballala II's son Narasimha II in 1217 when he applied the attribute Rājarājapratishthāniratam to Ballala II. The expression simply means 'intent on establishing great kings (on their thrones)' and does not refer to any particular historical event. We must remember that when Rudrabhatta wrote his work Umādēvi was the queen of Ballāļa II and Chandramauļi his minister. approximately determine from the inscriptions the period of Umādēvi to be 1185-1209. The period of Chandramauli, at whose instance Jagannāthavijaya was written, as stated by the poet himself, is a very important point in the matter under discussion. From the available inscriptions in which Chandramauli is mentioned, namely, S.B. 327 of 1181, Chennarayapatna 150, of 1182, and Arsīkere 127, of 1185, we learn that his period was about 1181-85. No inscription of a later date mentioning him has been met with. We may not therefore be far wrong in supposing that Chandramauli did not continue as minister of Ballala II much longer than the period noted above, and that the composition of Jagannāthavijaya must consequently have taken place about the same period and not in about 1218-19, nearly 35 years after that period.

Further, as far as I know, there is no epigraphical evidence to show that either Ballāla II or his son Narasimha II or any of his successors had the title Rājarāja-pratishthānirata, though Narasimha II deserved it by reason of his having placed Rājarāja III on the throne of his ancestors, instead of the general title Chōlarājya-pratishthāchārya which is invariably applied to him. Another distinctive title applied to him is Magararājya-nirmūlana, by reason of his conquest of that kingdom. These two distinctive titles, together with the title Pāndyagandaśailavajradanda or one of similar import in

some cases, are correctly applied to Narasimha II in numerous inscriptions such as Chennarāyapaṭṇa 197 and 203, of 1223; Chennagiri 72, of 1221, Dāvaṇgere 25, of 1224: and Gubbi 45, of 1233, though these three titles are by mistake applied to Ballāļa II in the solitary inscription¹ Nāgamangala 29, of 1218. The Doctor says (p. 114) that Ballāļa II assumed these titles, namely, Chōlarājyapratishṭhāchārya, Magararājyadiśāpaṭṭa and Pāṇḍyagajakēsari, by reason of the conquests of his son Narasimha II in 1217. The usual practice, however, is for the son to inherit the titles of the father and not vice for the son to inherit the titles of the father and not vice versa. In another place (p. 110) the Doctor states that the title Pāṇḍyagaṇḍaśailavajradaṇḍa or others of similar import such as Pāṇḍyagajakēsari, Pāṇḍyarājadiśāpaṭṭa and so on, were for the first time borne by Ballāļa II and subsequently assumed by his son and grandson. This statement is wrong, since such titles had been borne by the father and grandfather of Ballāla II as evidenced by inscriptions; e.g. Nāgamangala 76 (1145) styles Vishņuvardhana Pāṇḍyakulapayōdhibaḍabānalam; and Kadūr 96 (1141) Pāṇḍyagaṇḍagarvaparvata-Pākaśāsanam; S.B. 345 (c. 1159) and Kṛishṇarājapēte 53 (1171) apply the title Pāṇḍyakulakamala-vētaṇḍa to Narasimha I. This same title of his father is applied to Ballāļa II in S.B. 327 (1181) and 335 (1195), Arsīkere 90 and 93, of 1189, Chennarāyapaṭṇa 78 (1185) and so forth.

It will thus be seen that no valid reason has been

It will thus be seen that no valid reason has been given for changing the date assigned by me to Rudra-bhatta, namely, c. 1180, though I would myself change it to c. 1185 to bring it into line with the period of Umādēvi and Chandramauli.

## Sumanōbāṇa

About Sumanōbāṇa the Doctor has written a great deal, 26 pages (124-49), most of which is quite irrelevant to the matter on hand. He has made some guesses based on a misinterpretation of the following verse occurring in Janna's *Anantanāthapurāṇa* (I, 162, 329):

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The date of Arsikere 183 is doubtful.

ಜನನಾಧಂ ಜಗದೇಕನಲ್ಲಿ ಕಟಕೋಪಾಧ್ಯಾಯನಾ ನಾಗವ| ರ್ಮನಿದಾನೀಂತನಶರ್ವವರ್ಮನೆ ಗಡಂ ಜನ್ನಂಗುಪಾಧ್ಯಾಯನಿಂ॥ ದು ಸೃನಿಂಹ ಕ್ಷಿತಿಪಾಲನಲ್ಲಿ ಕಟಕೋಪಾಧ್ಯಾಯನಾರೆಂಬ ಸೂ| ಕ್ತಿನವೀನೋಜ್ವಲ ಬಾಣನಪ್ಪ ಸುಮನೋಬಾಣಂ ಕವಿಶ್ರೇಷ್ಠರೊಳ್॥

Any Kannada scholar will see at once that the verse consists of two sentences, one ending with Upādhyāyam and the other comprising the remaining portion, and interpret it thus: 'The famous Nagavarma who was the Kaṭakōpādhyāya (poet-laureate) of King Jagadēkamalla and who was verily the Sarvarvama of modern times was Janna's teacher. Do you ask who at present is the Katakopādhyāya of King Nrisimha? (Ho is) one of the best poets Sumanobāņa who is a brilliant modern Bāṇa in speech.' There are two events mentioned here, one a past and the other a present. But the Doctor would divide the verse into two parts, one ending with Nagavarmam and the other comprising the rest of the verse, and take the verse to mean that Nagavarma was the Katakopadhyaya of King Jagadekamalla, and that Sumanobāṇa, a Sarvavarma of modern times, the teacher of Janna, a modern Bāṇa, was the Katakopādhyāya of King Nrisimha. No person who has any knowledge of Kannada poetry will accept this interpretation. Verse 423 of Nāgavarma's Kāvyāvalōkana (I, 145) applies to him the epithet Abhinava Sarvavarma by reason of his approved works on grammar, Sarvavarma being an ancient grammarian who wrote the Kātantra. So the epithet Idanīntana-Sarvavarma used by Janna, which is nothing but a synonym of the other epithet, can apply only to Nagavarma and not to Sumanobana. Consequently the expression 'Janna's teacher' has also to be taken to apply to Nāgavarma alone. In his Yaśōdharacharite Janna says that he was the son of Sumanobana and in his Anantanāthapurāņa that he was the son of Sankara; we have therefore to identify Sumanobana with Sankara as we know that both the works were written by one and the same poet. But the Doctor would have the two as different persons and take the word son in the expression, 'the son of Sumanobana,' in

the sense of a disciple, to make it accord with his assumption that 'Janna's teacher' in the above verse referred to Sumanōbāṇa. In spite of the Doctor's misinterpretation and assumption to the contrary, Janna was the son of Sumanōbāṇa and closely related to Malli-kārjuna and Kēśirāja who were undoubtedly Jainas, as evidenced, among other things, by the invocatory verse in Sūktisudhāraṇava and the description of sound as a substance of white colour in sutra 9 of Sabdamaṇidar-paṇa. The Jainas will never consider Saivas as members of their own community.

With regard to the period of Sumanobana, I have to state that he was the Katakopādhyāva, not of Narasimha I (I, 162), but of Narasimha II (1220-35) as indicated by the word indu (at present) used by Janna in the above-mentioned verse. He may have lived in the early years of this king's reign, but his period must be taken back to at least 1175, since his son Janna, who composed the inscription Chennarayapatna 179 in 1190, must have been 25 or 30 years old at that time. This shortens the interval of 95 years given by the Doctor between Sumanôbāṇa (c. 1150) and his son-in-law Mallikārjuna (c. 1245) by 25 years, and if we suppose, as we may reasonably do, that 1245 represents the 30th or 40th year after Mallikārjuna's marriage, the interval is further shortened and rendered perfectly normal. Similarly, the query of the Doctor, namely, How can Nagavarma II (c. 1145) be teacher to Janna of 1230? can be answered thus. A teacher is generally employed to instruct a boy. Will any man in his senses suppose that Nagavarma II was the teacher of Janna at the time of the composition of Anantanāthapurāna when he was probably 70 years old? As stated before, Janna must have been 25 or 30 years old in 1190, and there is nothing to preclude the possibility of Nagavarma II having lived on 25 or 30 vears after 1145. We can thus easily establish the contact between the teacher Nagavarma II and the pupil Janna.

The Doctor then proceeds to say that I am wrong in saying that because Janna was a Jaina, his parents also were Jainas, and gives a few instances of Hindus taking a

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wite from the Jaina community which have no bearing on the point at issue, since a father's creed is as a rule adopted by the son. He also makes the curious statements that in the period between the 10th and 13th centuries devotees of Siva and Vishnu worshipped Jina, and devotees of Jina the deities Siva and Vishnu; there was no distinction such as followers of the Vedic path, Jainas and Buddhists; and even though people worshipped Jina or Buddha as the supreme deity, they were still considered to be followers of the Vedic path, and gives in their support a good number of examples (pp. 136–48) from inscriptions of kings and nobles making grants to men and institutions of creeds other than their own, which can only testify to their liberal-mindedness and tolerance, and not to their profession of the other creeds also.

#### CHAPTER IV

#### SOME CRITICISMS ANSWERED

(Continued)

## $Nar{a}gavarma$

The Doctor has made the assumption, without any solid ground, that only one author of the name of Nagavarma has written all the five works, namely, Chhandombudhi, Kādambari, Kāvyāvalōkana, Karnāṭaka-Bhāshābhūshana and Vastukośa, and that he lived in about 1050. He makes desperate attempts to support this assumption and readily dismisses as wrong or groundless facts that militate against it. His deliberate misinterpretation of the verse Jananatham Jagadekanalli and of the expression, Bhāļalōchanam Kavi-Sumanōbānana magam has already been adverted to. The verse clearly says that Nagavarma If this fact is accepted, the was Janna's teacher. Loctor's theory that Nagavarma lived in about 1050 has to be given up. So he interprets the verse in his own peculiar way to suit his purpose and makes Sumanobāņa Janna's teacher. He further asserts that Jagadeka of the verse refers to Jagadekamalla I (1015-42). If this be so, it is difficult to make out the object of Janna in mentioning the fact, more than a century old, of Nagavarma having been the Katakopādhyāya of Jagadēkamalla I. is a statement not at all connected with him in any way. In composing the verse Janna's object was to show to the world that he was highly connected, such distinguished Nāgavarma and Sumanōbāna personages as respectively his teacher and father. So the king named in the first portion of the verse cannot be Jagadekamalla Again, in the expression quoted above, which contains the very words of Janna, magam, a son, is taken deliberately in the unusual sense of a disciple just to suit his misinterpretation that Sumahobana was Janna's It is true that the word 'son' rarely occurs in the sense of disciple in a spiritual succession of gurus, but it can have no such sense here. We now come to a third misinterpretation in the shape of taking a son in the sense of a grandson in the expressions, Damōdarapriyasutam and Damodaratanavam. This is done deliberately to support the supposed identity of Dāmamayya's grandson, Nāgavarma, author of Chhandombudhi, with the author of Kāvyāvalōkana, Dāma being taken to be a shortened form of Damodara. The Doctor seeks support for his queer interpretation in the commentaries on Dharmaśāstras, etc. Authors do not write in enigmatical style to delude their readers. strange that the author of Kāvyāvalōkana names, according to the Doctor, only his grandfather and not his father. It is amusing to read the statement of the Doctor (p. 162) that the reason for the author not naming his father was the necessity for the alliteration in ma in the two verses given at foot of the page from Kāvyāvalokana and Vastukośa. This is indeed a poor estimate of the capability of the author as a poet. If the poet had really intended a grandson he could, without any detriment to prosody, very easily have expressed the idea by a slight change in the verses such as Damodarātmajasutam and Damodarapautram, without disturbing in the least the alliteration in ma.

I have already shown that Nāgachandra lived in about 1100. The author of Bhāshābhūskana, who quotes him under sūtra 88, must therefore be later than 1100. He also mentions in sūtra 73 a Kannada grammarian, Nayasēna, who cannot have anything to do with the Sanskrit grammarian of the same name (pp. 179-81) mentioned in a Mulgunda inscription of 1053 (Epigraphia Indica, XVI, 54), but must be identical with the Kannada author, Navasēna, who wrote *Dharmāmrita* in 1112. Vikramānka, named in verse 284 of Kāvyāvalōkana, must therefore be Vikramāditya VI (1076–11ž6) and not Vikramāditya IV or Vikramāditya V (pp. 178-9). Further, the author of Kāvyāvalōkana quotes two verses, 185 and 547, which name a Nāgavarma who cannot be the author himself, since verses in praise of the author occur only at the end of the chapters and not in illustration of the rules, but must

be an earlier author. Again, the author of Chhandōmbudhi has the titles Kavirāja-hamsa, Budhābjavanakalahamsa, Kandakandarpa and Negaltegōja. He is also styled Sayyaḍiyāta. On the other hand, the author of Kāvyāva-lōkana and Vastukōśa has the titles, Abhinava-Sarvavarma, Kavitāguṇōdaya, Kavikarṇapūra, and Kavikaṇṭhabharaṇa. If the authors were the same, as assumed by the Doctor, it is very strange indeed that not one of the former set of titles is found in the latter works, and vice versa. The former author was a great warrior, an Arjuna in battle, while the latter had no such distinction to his credit.

In the last verse of Kāvyāvalōkana Chhandōvichiti is named as one of the works of its author, and the Doctor at once concludes that the work is none other than Chhandōmbudhi (p. 166). He also advances the amusing argument that because the author of Kāvyāvalōkana follows Daṇḍi who has written a Chhandōvichiti, he also must have written one (p. 168). He may have written one but it cannot be Chandōmbudhi for the reasons given above. If he had written this work, he could have expressed it thus: Chhandōmbunidhiyalamkriti instead of Chandōvichityalamkriti. The Doctor says (p. 169) that later Chāmuṇḍarāyas were also known as Kāyas. This only shows that they imitated their distinguished predecessor. There is therefore no reason to disbelieve Bhujabalicharita which says that the title Rāya was conferred by Rāchamalla on his general for his munificence.

All these facts clearly prove that the Doctor's attempt to support his assumption is a miserable failure, though he would brush them all aside as of no value. In the light of these facts his search for other Rakkasagangas, Chamuṇḍarāyas and Ajitasēnas in support of the supposed period of Nāgavarma, namely, 1050, cannot but prove futile. So, every one of the points urged by me (I. 52-54) for the differentiation of the two Nāgavarmas and their periods stands as strong as ever.

## Mallikārjuna

About Mallikārjuna the Doctor says (pp.182-89) that he wrote *Sūktisudhārṇava* in about 1263 and that he was

identical with Chidananda, composer of the inscriptions, Mandya 121 and 122 (I.354). He is wrong in both these statements. The first statement is due to a misunderstanding of the expression, Elele Mahādēva, occurring in the verse beginning with Hanidam-boyyal (p.186), which, as any Kannada scholar would understand, does not refer to the Sēvuna King Mahādēva (1260-71) but is merely an exclamation of wonder at the prowess of King Someśvara. From Nagamangala 39 we learn that the defeat of the Sēvuņa King Mahādēva by Sōmēśvara's son, Narasimha III, took place in about 1271. How can Someśwara who is supposed to have died in 1264 have anything to do with this defeat of Mahadeva? It is true that Someśvara lived for the greater part of his life at Kannanūr; but he was in the Kannada country in 1236 (Bombay Archæological Report for 1897-98), 1237 (Mandya 1222) and 1252 (Mysore Archæological Report for 1907, p. 4), and might have been there at other periods also. It may perhaps be inferred from the statement of Mallikārjuna that Somēsvara, lord of Dorasamudra, approved of his work, in the verse beginning with Orante (I. 372), that the king heard the work read out to him at Dorasamudra. Consequently, the date, c. 1245, given by me for the composition of Sūktisudhārņava is not at all affected in any way; it may even be a few years earlier.

The second statement about the identity of Mallikārjuna and Chidānanda, composer of Mandya 121 and 122, is based on a partial similarity of the names and the fact that two of the verses occurring in the inscriptions also occur in Sūktisudhārnava. Mallikārnuja is also known as Malla, Mallapa Chidānanda-Mallikārjuna. In one verse (I. 370) his name occurs in the shortened form; Chidānanda. But the name of the composer of the inscriptions is merely Chidānanda. Mallikārjuna's work being a compilation from various sources, the fact of his having taken two verses from the Mandya inscriptions need not at all raise the presumption that he and the composer were identical. It may be stated here that as Nāgamangala 98, of 1229, contains 16 verses found in Mandya 121 and 122,

which are of a later date, the former also may be the composition of Chidananda, its final portion being illegible. I may also add that verse 810 (I. 355) occurs in Davangere 25, of 1224, with the substitution of Narasimha for Sōyidēva, and verse 808 (I. 354) in Kadur 12, of 1233, with the substitution of Kali Sōyiballaham for Narasimha-Bhūbhujam. Chidananda seems to have adapted these two verses from the inscriptions. Again, Mallikarjuna was a Jaina as I have shown before, whereas the composer of the inscriptions was a Brahmana as indicated by his epithet, Brahmavidyegāspadarūpam. The Doctor's surmise that Sumanobana, Mallikarjuna and Keśiraja may have been Smārta Brāhmanas (p. 189) is groundless. I have already shown that they were all Jainas. Otherwise it is difficult to see how the Jaina community could claim them as their own. Sankara, Gange and Janardana (p. 149) are common enough names among the Jainas. Ranna names a Jaina prince, Sankaraganda, and says that his own patroness, Attimabbe, excelled him in liberality (I. 66). Gangisețți and Gangāyi occur in S.B. 235 and 300 as the names of a Jaina man and woman. The names, Sivadēvamma and Janārdana, are even now borne by Jainas. Madhura mentions a Jaina, Mallikārjuna (I. 427), at whose instance he wrote Dharmanāthapurāna, and Sālva names a Jaina Sanka-rāmbike (II. 244). The opinion that the names of Keśirāja's works given at the end of his *Grammar* show that he was a worshipper of Siva (pp. 148-49), is rather hasty, as it is not proper to pronounce such an opinion before an examination of those works.

## Sōmarāja

My statement that Sōmarāja may have belonged to the Chauta Dynasty (I. 339) is nothing but a mere guess, and I have mentioned it to be so in clear terms. The Doctor asserts (pp. 219–27) that Sōmarāja was a Nuggehaḷḷi chief, and that he wrote his *Udbhaṭakāvya* in 1522 and not in 1222 as I have stated. His chief reasons are (1) that Induśēkhara, a Nuggehaḷḷi chief, mentioned as the son of Rāyaṇa and the grandson of Tirumala of the

Lunar race in Hāssan 117, of 1573, must be the father of our poet, and (2) that sāsirada nūrīm sanda nālvattu-nālku (1144) is an alteration made by me, the correct reading according to him being sāsirada nānūr sanda nālvattunalku (1444), which makes the date exactly 300 years later than the date given by me. These reasons are not at all satisfactory. We know quite well from his work that Somaraja was a staunch Virasaiva. On the other hand, the Nuggehalli chiefs who are stated in Hāssan 117 to be of the Ātrēya-gōtra, Āpastamba-Sūtra and Yajus-Sākha, cannot be Vīraśaivas, though the names are similar. Further, Hāssan 117 does not name Somarāja but mentions Basavarāja as the son of Induśēkhara, and gives his period as 1573. If, as asserted by the Doctor, Somaraja was the son of this Indusekhara, his period, too, ought to be about 1573 and not 1522 as assumed by him. Again, we learn from inscriptions (II. 215) that the Nuggehalli chief, Rayana, was a feudatory of the Vijavanagar King Achyuta (1530-42), and if Somaraja was this chief's grandson his period would be considerably later than 1522. With regard to the second reason, I may say that I do not at all remember having made any alteration in the verse, though I do not recollect which manuscript I had before me when writing Somarāja's life. Lven taking for granted for argument's sake that I made an alteration, is not his alteration just to support a preconceived notion more blameable than mine, seeing that I had no theory at all to support? The reading proposed by the Doctor is, however, untenable as it violates grammar. No good author would use the expression, nur sanda, instead of the correct form, nūru sanda. compounded with another word, Nūru retains its full form as indicated by the exception, dūru puttitu, given under sutra 82 of the Sabdānuśāsana. The same is the case with Mūru. Compare Pampa—aruvattumūru sandandu (I. 13).

As another ground for his assumption, the Doctor takes (p. 227) Rāyasada Lingarasa, the copyist of *Udbhaṭa-kāvya*, to be identical with Lingamantri (c. 1530), minister of the Nuggehalli chief, Rāyaṇa, and author of the

#### SOME CRITICISMS ANSWERED

Kannada lexicon, Kabbigarakaipidi (II. 215). Here we have only a partial similarity of names and it is not at all likely that a minister can hold the inferior position of a copyist (Rāyasa). Another point mentioned by the Doctor in support of the theory that Somaraja wrote his work in 1522 is that Salva who quotes Somaraja (VIII, 43) in his Rasaratnākara lived, according to the Doctor, before 1529 (p. 224), many years before c. 1550, the date assigned to him by me (II. 244). I do not see how this supports the Doctor's theory. From inscriptions, however, we learn that Sālvadeva, patron of Sālva, ruled till 1559 (see Panchakajjāya, 162). Consequently the period assigned to Salva by me cannot be far wrong. The Doctor incidentally states (p. 227), relying on Sagar 163, of 1488, that Kōtīśvara (II, 145), who wrote Jīvandhara-Shatpadi at the instance of the chief Sangama of Sangītapura, lived in about 1480 and not in about 1500 as I have stated. But as this chief, who has nothing to do with Sangirāja of Sagar 163, appears to have ruled after Sālvadeva (Panchakajjāya, 161), his date would be about 1560, and consequently Kotiśvara's period also has to be brought down to about 1560.

Mr. M. Govinda Pai of Manjēshvar has also published an article on Somarāja in *Svadēśābhimāni* (19-8-27 and 26-8-27) and Kannada *Parishatpatrike* (XII, 48-66), stating that the poet wrote his work not in 1222 but in

1522. His main reasons are given thus:

(1) In 1222 the 11th Junar day of the bright fortnight of Aśvija falls on Sunday and not on Wednesday as stated in the verse.¹ But the week-day will be correct in 1522. Therefore the reading must be nalnūr sanda and not nūrim sanda as I have given. Nūrim-sanda nālvattunālku means, according to him, not 100 plus 44 but 100 -44! As I have already stated, the form nūr-sanda violates grammar. There are numerous instances of inscriptions in which one or two of the constituents given of the date do not fit in, and no scholar thinks it justifiable to bring down the date of the record by hundreds

of years just to remedy the supposed defect. In the present case, though the 11th lunar day of the bright fortnight of Aśvīja does not fall on Wednesday in the year Chitrabhānu (1222), it does so in the previous year Vṛisha (1221).¹ Such differences of one year are very common in the dates of inscriptions and literary works.

(2) The interval between Kumārapala or Udbhaṭa (c. 1150), the subject of the story, and Sōmarāja (1222), the teller of the story, is too short for the story to spread from Gujarāt to Karnāṭaka. I think a period of three quarters of a century is quite ample for the purpose.

(3) The style looks more like that of the 16th century than that of the 13th. This is only a matter of opinion and style cannot be looked upon as a reliable guide for fixing the period of a work in the absence of other evidence.

If, as these scholars have assumed, Sōmarāja wrote his work in 1522, it cannot be explained why he names as his predecessors only poets who lived before 1200 and no one that lived in the three centuries from 1200 to 1500, not even Bhīma (1369), the author of Basavapurāṇa. In these circumstances I would prefer to retain the date 1222 for Sōmarāja till irrefutable evidence to the contrary is forthcoming.

# Harīśvara, Rāghavānka and Kereya-Padmarasa

My conclusion that Harīśvara, Rāghavānka and Kereya-Padmarasa flourished at about 1165 (I, 222) is objected to by the Doctor on the following grounds:

(1) Sōmarāja, who praises Harīśvara and Kereya-Padmarasa, wrote *Udbhaṭakāvya* in 1522 and not in 1222.

(2) Quotation from Harīśvara's *Girijākalyāṇa* by Mallikārjuna (1263) only proves that the work existed before 1263, and not that Rāghavānka and Kereya-Padmarasa lived before that period.

(3) The expression, Narasimha-Ballāla of *Padmarāja-Purāṇa*, means 'Narasimha's son Ballāla', that is, Nara-

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm 1}$  I am obliged to Mr. R Rama Rao, B.A., of the Archæological Department for this piece of information.

simha III's son, Ballāla III (1291-1342), and Biṭṭidēva mentioned there is Ballāļa IV.

- (4) There was a Rudradēva in 1162 whose capital was Anumakonda and not Oragallu. There was no Pratāparudra then.
- (5) It is not improbable that there ruled, as Brown says, a king named Dēvarāja at Pampāpura from 1286 to 1328 before Harihara I.
- (6) As Kereya-Padmarasa's father was Basava's contemporary, Kereya-Padmarasa, must have been very young in 1165. So he could not have lived during the reign of Narasimha I (1141–73).
- (7) It is stated that Harīśvara was sent to Hampe by Narasimha I. But Hampe was not situated in Narasimha I's kingdom, as it was included in the Hoysala kingdom only in Ballāla II's time (1173–1220). So Narasimha cannot be Narasimha I.

None of these grounds is satisfactory for the following reasons:

- (1) I have already shown that *Udbhaṭakāvya* which praises Harīśvara was written in A.D. 1222 and that Mallikārjuna, who quotes from Harīśvara's *Girijākalyāṇa*, lived in about 1245. So there can be no doubt of Harīśvara having lived before these dates.
- (2) I have proved the contemporaneity of Harīśvara, Rāghavānka and Kereya-Padmarasa from Vīraśaiva works (I. 222). Rāghavānka was the nephew of Harīśvara; and Harīśvara and Kereya-Padmarasa were respectively the accountant and minister of the Hoysala king, Narasimha I.
- (3) The interpretation of the expression, Narasimha-Ballāļa, as meaning Narasimha's son Ballāļa is not correct. It is only in the Telugu country that the expression conveys such a meaning. Here, however, the word Ballāļa is used in the sense of Hoysaļa. In several Kannada works the Hoysaļas are known as Ballāļas. So Narasimha Ballāļa means the Hoysaļa king, Narasimha (I), and his son Biṭṭidēva means Ballāļa (II), the grandson of Biṭṭidēva or Vishņu-vardhana.

(4) In 1162 there was a Kakatiya ruler named

Pratāparudra whose rule extended from 1140-96. This king, according to Telugu scholars, was the author of a Telugu work called Nītisāra, and gave an agrahāra to Pālkurike Sōmanātha. He is said to have gone to Ōragallu and to have heard the recital of Pālkurike Sōmanātha's Basavapurāna (Viresalingam Pantulu's Telugu Poets I, 217-22). No evidence has been produced by the Doctor for Ōragallu not being the capital at that time. The ruler may have had more than one capital in his territory. The particle iva in the verse quoted (Rajadhānīva, p. 263) shows that Anumakoṇḍa was only like the capital which must therefore have been different.

(5) No epigraphical evidence has come to light in support of Brown's statement that there was a Devarāja

in Pampāpura, who ruled from 1286-1328.

(6) The contemporaneity of Kereya-Padmarasa's father and Basava does not necessarily lead to the conclusion that Padmarasa was a very young man in 1165, as his father may have been an elder contemporary of Basava.

(7) From the fact that Harīśvara was sent to Hampe by Narasimha I, it does not necessarily follow that that place must be situated within his kingdom. Nor has any evidence been produced for the place not lying within his jurisdiction.

There are a few other points mentioned by the Doctor

which also require a word in reply:

He states that because Harīsvara and Rāghavānka do not name Basava, they are not Vīrasaivas. For that matter, Nijagunasivayogi and other recognised Vīrasaivas have not named Basava.

As regards the Doctor's statement that Bijjala was not a Jaina as evidenced by the names, Sōmēśvara and Śankara, borne by his sons, I have already shown that Śankara is a common enough name among the Jainas and the same appears to be the case with the other name also. With regard to the Doctor's query why Mallikārjuna does not quote from Rāghavānka's Hariśchandrakāvya, it has to be stated that he does not do so as that work is written in the Shaṭpadi metre, his Sūktisudhārṇava consisting of quotations from Champū works only.

The Doctor considers that the statement in Virasaiva and Jaina works that Basava and Chennabasava were at the court of Bijiala is false, and quotes in support of his assertion Dr. Fleet who has said that Ekantada Ramaiya was probably the founder of the Vīraśaiva faith and not Basava, simply because there was no epigraphical evidence about the existence of Basava. If that be the case, how are we to believe in the existence of Sankarāchārya and Ramānujāchārva who are not mentioned in inscriptions? But fortunately for Basava a new inscription has just been discovered at Arjunavada in the Belgaum Taluk, dated A.D. 1259-60 (Saka 1182), referring itself to the reign of the Sēvuņa King Kandhara (1247-60), which mentions Basava, his father, and five generations of his descendants. It thus affords incontestible proof of the existence of Basava at Bijjala's time. The epigraph is published in Sivānubhava III. 94.

I do not think any scholar will indulge, as the Doctor does, in such a wholesale condemnation of all Vīraśaiva, Jaina and Brāhmaṇa traditional works and refuse to derive any sort of help from them. Because there are some defects in a work, it is not wisdom to condemn it wholly. Even works which are professedly historical contain such defects. The Doctor is pleased to attribute credulity to me because I quote from Vīraśaiva and other works. Quotation from a work does not necessarily mean a belief in all that is said in it. When the date of a work is known, to say that the authors mentioned in it must have lived before that date is, I think, quite reasonable. Inconsistencies such as those pointed out by the Doctor in Vīraśaiva works are found even in genuine inscriptions.

It will thus be seen that the dates assigned by me to Harīśvara, Rāghavānka and Kereya-Padmarasa do not

require any alteration.

### OTHER CRITICISMS

Singirāja

Messrs. Hardekar Manjappa and Sindagi Siddappa, authors of Srībasavacharitre and Srībasavēśvara-charitre

respectively, are of opinion that Singirāja-purāna is the earliest Kannada account of Basava, Singiraja, the author of this work, being, according to them, identical with his namesake included in the Dāsagaṇa (see I. 214 and 294) and thus a contemporary of Basava. In expressing this opinion both of them have relied on a story given by Mr. Basavalinga Sāstri of Mysore in the introduction to his Singirājapurāṇa-vijaya, a prose version of Singirājapurāṇa, to the effect that Singirāja, who was a Vaishṇava feudatory of Bijjaļa, became a convert to Vīraśaivism and wrote. Singirājapurāṇa and that he was subsequently wrote Singirājapurāņa and that he was subsequently included in the Dasagaņa by Palkurike Somanatha in his Sahasragananāma. Mr. Basavalinga Sāstri has not, however, given his authority for the story. As far as I know, there does not appear to be any evidence, literary or inscriptional, in support of the story. Mr. Hardekar Manjappa says in the introduction (p. 6) to his work that I have assigned Singirāja to 1650 in my Kavicharite. This statement is not correct: I have assigned this author to about 1500 (Vol. II, 148). It is the generally accepted opinion among the Vīraśaivas that Bhīmakavi's Basavapurāņa is the earliest Kannada work on Basava, and if Singirāja-purāņa had been written before his time, it cannot be explained why Bhīmakavi does not name its author and base his own work on Singirāja's instead of basing it on the Telugu Basavapurāṇa of Pālkurike Somanātha. No Vīraśaiva authors of an earlier period than the middle of the 16th century name Singirāja, though they invariably name Pālkurike Somanātha or Bhimakavi. earliest writer who mentions his name is Chennabasavanka (c. 1550), author of Mahādēviyakkana-purāņa. Further, Singirāja criticises some statements relating to Basava, thus showing that there were in existence some accounts of Basava before his time. He would not have done this if he had been the very first writer on the subject.1 therefore think that this author cannot be identical with his namesake of the Dāsagana but must be a later writer

When speaking of him, Virūpāksha Pandita (1584) does not say that he was a poet but says merely that he was a great devotee of Siva (Chennabasava-purāņa, Kāṇḍa 5, Sandhi 2, 50).

of about 1500. Singidēvaiya, another person included in the Dāsagaņa, has, however, written vachanas (p. 352), just like other contemporaries of Basava.

## Ratnākaravarni

Messrs. Ugrān Mangēśa Rao and Nyāvatīrtha Sāntirāja Sāstri, the editors of Bharatēśvara-charite and Satakatrayi respectively, have, relying on Devachandra's statement, stated that Ratnakaravarni was the author of Ratnākarādhīśvara śataka, Aparājitēśvara-śataka and Trìloka-śataka. Though this belief is common, I have advanced some objections against it and expressed the opinion that Sringārakavi-Hamsarāja, the author of Ratnākarādhīśvara-šataka, was different from Ratnākaravarni, the author of the remaining two satakas and Bharatēśvara-charite, for the following reasons: namely, (1) that the praise of Aparājitēśvara and Mandārasvāmi and the use of the epithets, Niranjanasiddha Chidambarapurusha, found in what I consider as Ratnākaravarni's works, are not found in Hamsarāja's work; and (2) that the guru of Ratnākaravarņi was Chārukīrti, whereas the guru of Hamsarāja was Dēvēndrakīrti (Vol. II, 274). These objections have not been satisfactorily answered by the above-mentioned editors. In order to identify the two authors, the mention of Mahēndrakīrti as the guru of Ratnākaravarņi by Dēvachandra has been taken hold of as a point in their favour and they have stated that Mahendrakirti and Devendrakīrti, being synonymous, refer to one and the same person. But this view is not at all tenable, since the names are found to refer to different individuals in inscriptions and literary works. Further, the editors assert without quoting any authority that Ratnākaravarņi had the title Sringārakavi-Hamsarāja. Sringārakavi does occur as a title and it has been borne by a few poets but the addition of Hamsaraja to it conveys no sense So Hamsarāja has to be taken to be the name of a different poet.

Mr. Sāntirāja Sāstri has caused to be printed the colophon which is found at the end of Ratnākarādhīśvara

śataka at the end of the other two Satakas also, for which there does not appear to be any warrant in the manuscripts I have seen. There is further the clear statement in the last verse of Triloka-sataka that the work was composed by Ratnākarārya. As the expressions Niranjanasiddha and Chidambarapurusha are used as epithets of his guru by Ratnākaravarņi (Bharatēśvaracharite, I. 4), my statement that Niranjanasiddha was a title of the author (Vol. II, 274) is not correct. After all the only authority for supposing that Ratnākaravarņi was the author of all the three Satakas and that he had the title Sringārakavi is Dēvachandra. But this authority is not quite reliable as his work abounds in mistakes. As an instance I may give a statement of his in connection with Ratnakaravarni himself, namely, that he was a contemporary of Vijayanna, the author of Dvādaśānuprēkshe (Vol. II, 276). But this is untenable—Vijayanna's time being 1448 and Ratnākaravarni's 1557.

#### Lakshmīśa

There has been a long controversy in Kannada journals and newspapers about the place, creed and time of Lakshmīśa, the author of Jaimini-Bhārata. The generally accepted opinion about the place is that he belonged to Devanur of the Kadur Taluk, which he styles Surapura, Gīrvāṇapura, etc., in his work. He has also dedicated his work to the deity Lakshmīramaņa of the village. In the temple of this deity, it is said that first honours are shown to him and that portions of his work are recited on certain special occasions as a mark of respect to his memory. His house is even now pointed out in the village. There were until a few years ago his lineal descendants living in the place. In spite of all these facts some have boldly asserted that Surapura in Hyderabad was the place of the author. With regard to his creed, it has been stated that he was either an Advaiti or a Smārta of the Bhāgavata Sect, and not a Srīvaishnava. As stated before, there were his lineal descendants living in Dēvanūr who were Srīvaishņavas and no Srīvaishņava would accept a Smarta for his ancestor. The objection

advanced against the author being a Srīvaishnava is that he praises Siva, Pārvati and Gaņapati at the beginning of his work. Instances may be given of other authors, undoubtedly Srīvaishņava, who have done the same thing: (1) Lakshma Kavi, the author of Bhārata, etc. (p. 15) was a Srīvaishņava of Hārugadde, Ānekal Taluk, whose descendants are even now archakas of the Chennakēshava Temple at the village. There can be no doubt of his having been a Srīvaishnava, as he states that he is a disciple of a descendant of Embar, who was a disciple of Ramānuja; and yet he praises Siva and Gaņapati in his work. (2) Timmāmātya, the author of Ananda Rāmāyana (p. 74), was a Srīvaishnava, whose descendants are even now conducting the duties of archakas at Agara, about six miles to the east of Bangalore, and he, too, praises Siva and Ganapati.

Some have observed that Dēvanūr not being an exact equivalent of Surapura, some other place has to be looked for, and their search has led them to Surapura in Hyderabad. These will, however, be surprised when they learn that Timmāmātya has Sanskritised Sādanahaļļi into Sahadēvapura, and Lakshma Kavi, Hārugadde into Khagapura. Compared with these renderings the rendering of Dēvanūr into Surapura may be looked upon

as the nearest and most appropriate.

With regard to the period of Lakshmiśa, various opinions have been expressed, the balance of opinion being in favour of the date 1415. I have, however, expressed the opinion that Lakshmiśa lived about the close of the 17th century (II. 523). If he had lived in 1415, it cannot be explained why his name is not mentioned by any writer from the 15th to the close of the 17th century: not even by the Brāhmaṇa authors of Bhārata Rāmāyaṇa and Bhāgavata, and by Chikkupādhyāya, a fellow Srīvaishnava, who mentions even the Smārta poet Rudrabhatta. The authors that mention him belong to the 18th century. It is these facts that led me to assign him to the close of the 17th century, which is likewise the period assigned to him by tradition.

Some scholars have made much of the similarities

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between his work and the *Chennabasavapurāṇa* of Virūpāksha Panḍita (1584) and have concluded that Lakshmīśa preceded Virūpāksha Paṇḍita. But these similarities may be interpreted in either way and do not constitute a decisive factor in determining Lakshmīśa's

period.

I may incidentally mention an interesting fact in Kantada literature in connection with a statement made in the Kannada Parishatpatrike (V. 5), with reference to Lakshmīśa, that no one would translate a work which was opposed to his faith. I shall give instances of Jainas having written works for their Hindu friends as if they were Hindus and vice versa. Padmarasa, a Jaina (II. 314), wrote, apparently for a Hindu friend, the Sringārakathe in 1599. At the beginning of the work he praises Sadāśiva, Sarasvati and Gaṇēśa, as if he were a Hindu. Conversely, Pattābhirāma, a Hindu (III. 25) wrote for a Jaina friend, named Paduma, a Jaina work styled Ratnaśākharacharite, in about 1725. The work related a story about the observance of the Pushpānjali vow and the author begins the work with praise of Jina, the Siddhas, etc., as if he were a Jaina.

#### CHAPTER V

### EXTENT AND RANGE OF KANNADA LITERATURE

KANNADA literature is of vast extent and range. It is a well-known fact that the three classes of poets in Kannada, namely, the Jainas, the Vīraśaivas and the Brāhmanas, have, like the authors of the other sister languages of Southern India, written mostly on religion and philosophy. But there are also works, though comparatively small in number, on secular subjects. Jainas have mostly written accounts of the Tirthankaras and of princes and personages such as Nāgakumāra, Jīvandhara, Sukumāra, Dhanyakumāra, Jāyanripa, Inānachandra, and so on, who attained Arhantya or Arhat-In Vīraśaiva works are to be found mostly accounts of the 63 devotees of Siva and other Saiva devotees, accounts of the 25 sports of Siva and expositions of the Shatsthala and Ekōttaraśatasthala. Brāhmana works mostly treat of the stories of the the Rāmāyaṇa, the Mahābhārata, the Bhāgavata and other puranas, and subjects bearing on the Vedanta. Bhattākalanka (1604) in the introduction to his Sabdānusāsana remarks that in Kannada are written numerous works on sabdāgama (grammar), yuktyāgama (logic) and paramāgama (philosophy) as well as numberless books of poetry, the drama, rhetoric and the fine arts.1 A survey of Kannada secular literature brings to view not only kāvyas, works on poetics, prosody and grammar, and lexicons, but also works bearing on biography and local history, and a respectable number of works on medicine, veterinary science, mathematics and other

¹ ಶೆಬ್ದಾಗಮ ಯುಕ್ತಾ,ಗಮ ಪರಮಾಗಮ ವಿಷಯಾಣಾಂ ತಧಾ ಕಾವ್ಯನಾಟಕಾಲಂಕಾರ ಕಲಾಶಾಸ್ತ್ರ ವಿಷಯಾಣಾಂ ಚ ಬಹೂನಾಂ ಗ್ರಂಧಾನಾಮಪಿ ಭಾಷಾಕೃತಾನಾಮುಪಲಭ್ಯ ಮಾನತ್ನಾತ್.

sciences and arts. Besides, there are innumerable Kannada inscriptions written in excellent  $K\bar{a}vya$  style. A few details will now be given of the secular works mentioned above in general terms.

### The Drama

Bhattākaļanka says that there were dramas in Kannada during his time. But no old dramas have come down to us. The Mālavī-Mādhava, said to have been written by Karṇapārya, and the Subhadrāharaṇa and Prabōdha-chandra, stated by Kēśiraja as his works, look like dramas. The only drama now extant is the Mitravindā-gōvinda of Singarārya (c. 1680), which is a Kannaḍa version of the Ratnāvali of Srīharsha. In Telugu Krīdābhirāmavīdhinataka by Vinukonda Vallabharāya of the 15th century appears to be the earliest drama. In Tamil the early dramas are said to have been lost; and Aruṇāchalakavi of the 18th century, author of Rāmanātakam, is looked upon as the father of modern dramatic literature in that language.

## Poetics

Among works on poetics the earliest is the Kavirājamārga. Among subsequent works Nāgavarma's Kāvyāvalōkana treats of verbal ornaments and the ornaments of sense as also of poetical conventions; the Sringāraratnākara of Kavi Kāma, the Rasaratnākara of Sālva and the Navarasālankāra of Timma, treat of rasa or poetical sentiment or flavour; and the Sāradāvilāsa of Sālva treats of dhvani or suggested meaning. Besides, we have Mādhavālankāra, a translation of Daṇḍi's Kāvyādarśa, Apratimavīra-charita and Narapativijaya based on the Chandrālōka, a Kannaḍa version of the Kuvalayānanda, and other works.

## Prosody

The earliest Kannada work on this subject is Guṇa-gānkiyam, which has not, however, come down to us. Nāgavarma's Chhandōmbudhi treats pretty fully of the subject. There are likewise Kavijihvābandhana, Chhan-

dassāra and Nandi-chhandassu and other works dealing with prosody.

#### Grammar

There is reference to a grammar written by Nayasēna, but this has not come down to us. Of the works extant dealing with the subject are Sabdasmriti and Sabdamanidarpana written in Kannada, and Bhāshābhūshana and Sabdānuśāsana written in Sanskrit.

#### Lexicons

The earliest of these is one attributed to Ranna and named Rannakanda. Sabdasāra, Karnāṭaka-Nighanṭu, Chaturāsya-Nighanṭu, Karnāṭaka-Sabdamanjari, Kabbigara-Kaipiḍi, Kavi-Kanṭhahāra, Karnāṭaka-Sanjīvana and others explain the meaning of Halagannaḍa words; while Vastukōśa, Mangābhidhāna, Nānārtha-Ratnākara and other works give Kannaḍa synonyms for Sanskrit words. Besides, there are commentaries on the Sanskrit lexicons of Amara, Halāyudha, etc., and on lexicons bearing on medicine.

## Medicine

The earliest work on medicine is the Karnāṭaka-Kalyāṇakāraka of Jagaddala-Sōmanātha. Khagēndra-maṇidarpaṇa treats of toxicology. There are also medical works written by Srīdharadēva, Sālva, Chikkupādhyāya, Vīrarāja, Nanjarāja, Nrisimhabhaṭṭa, Brahma and others. There are likewise works on surgery and treatment of women and children. Chandrarāja, Abhinavachandra, Rāmachandra and Padmaṇapaṇdita have written works on the treatment of horses; Kīrtivarma, a Chāļukya prince, on the treatment of cattle; and Vīrabhadrarāja, a commentary on Pālakāpya's treatment of elephants.

## Cookery

The earliest work bearing on this subject is the one written by Jayabandhunandana. Mangarasa and others have also written on the subject.

## Astrology, Meteorology

The earliest work on astrology is the Jātakatilaka of Srīdharāchārya. Other works bearing on it and allied subjects are Lōkōpakāra, Raṭṭamata, Raṭṭana-Jātaka, Narapingali, Mārkandēya-purāṇa, Sakunaprapancha, etc. There are likewise commentaries on Sūryasiddhānta and other Sanskrit works on Astronomy.

### Mathematics

Under this head there are works treating of Arithmetic, Algebra and Geometry written by Rājāditya, Bhāskara, Timmarasa, Bālavaidyada-Cheluva, and others. There are also commentaries on Mahāvīrāchārya's Gaṇitasārasangraha, and other mathematical works. Mahāvīrāchārya's work was translated into Telugu by Pāvalūri Mallaṇṇa in about 1200.

#### Erotics

Under this head the earliest work is the Madanatilaka of Chandrarāja. Other works bearing on the subject are Smaratantra, Manmathavijaya, Janavaśya, Angajabōdhe, etc. There are likewise commentaries on the Sanskrit works of Vātsyāyana, Kakkoka and others.

Besides the works noted above, there are also treatises on precious stones, palmistry, fireworks, etc.

## History, Biography

Among the works dealing with history may be mentioned Maisūrurājara-charitre, Maisūrarasugaļa-pūrvābhyudaya, Chikkadēvarājavamšāvaļi, Keļadinripa-vijaya, Biļigiyarasara-vamšāvaļi, Rājavamšaratnaprabha, etc., and among those treating of biography may be named Rājanripa-vijaya, Kanṭhīravanarasarāja-vijaya, Dēvarājēndra-sāngatya, Chikkadēvarāja-vijaya, Bijjaļa-rāya-charite, Beṭṭavardhana-charite, Jagadēvarāyana-kāvya and so on.

## Nāgavarma II's services to the Kannaḍa Language

Before going to the next section, I would say here a word about Nagavarma II's services to the Kannada

language. There are many authors in Kannada who have written excellent poems and several authors who have written on the grammar, poetics, prosody or vocabulary of the language. But it must be said to the credit of Nāgavarma II that he made it his duty to write almost all his works on the language—on its grammar, poetics, prosody and vocabulary—thus proving not only his love for the language but also his solicitude for its propagation. In the whole field of Kannada literature he stands alone in this respect. His works are standard authorities and their importance for the study of the language is acknowledged by all Kannada scholars. His valuable services to the Kannada language are indicated in the following verse, probably composed by an admirer, which occurs at the end of his Karnāṭaka-Bhāshābhūshaṇa:

ಜೀಯಾದಸೌ ಮಹಾಪ್ರೋಕ್ತಾ ನಾಗವರ್ಮಒಧೋತ್ತಮಃ| ಯತ್ಪ್ರಜ್ಞಯಾಂ ಜಗತ್ಯುಚ್ಚೈರ್ಯಾತಿ ಕರ್ಣಾಟಲಕ್ಷ ಣಂ||

# Jaina Authors in Mysore and in the Tamil and Telugu Countries

Jaina Authors in Mysore

There is pretty good evidence to show that a Jaina colony was established at Sravana Belgola in the 3rd century B.C. So Jaina predominance began earlier and, as we know, continued longer in Mysore than in the Tamil country. Several of the early dynasties of kings in Mysore, such as the Gangas, the Rāshṭrakūṭas, the earlier Hoysalas, the Kongālvas, the Chengālvas, etc., were Jaina. The earliest cultivators of the language were Jainas. The oldest works of any extent and value that have come down to us are all from the pen of the Jainas. The period of Jaina predominance in the literary field may justly be called the Augustan Age of Kannada literature. Jaina authors in Kannada are far more numerous than in Tamil. To name only a few, we have Pampa, Ponna, Ranna, Gunavarma, Nagachandra, Nayasēna, Nāgavarma, Aggala, Nēmichandra, Janna, Āṇḍayya, Bandhuvarma, and Madhura, authors whose works are

admired as excellent specimens of poetic composition. It is only in Kannada that we have a Rāmāvana, and a Bharata based on the Jaina tradition, in addition to the same works based on Brāhmanical tradition. Besides kāvyas written by Jaina authors we have numerous works by them dealing with subjects such as grammar, rhetoric, prosody, mathematics astrology, medicine. veterinary science, cookery and so forth. Altogether the number of Jaina authors in Kannada is nearly 200. The decline of their political power, which was brought about, among other causes, by the conversion of Vishnuvardhana to Vaishnavism, the establishment of the Vīraśaiva faith and the final overthrow of the Kalachurva dynasty, produced a check to their literary activity, though works, comparatively inferior, continued to appear in later times.

## Jaina Authors in the Tamil Country

We find Jainas in the Tamil country from the Sangam age. Some Tamil scholars are of opinion that the Jainas had immigrated into the southern Tamil districts and made a permanent home there before the first century A.D.; that the golden era of Tamil literature was mostly inspired by the Jainas, as it was also the period when they were in their hey-day of literary and proselytising rigour; that for three centuries down to the 7th century they wielded such enormous influence as to gain the active patronage of the Pāṇḍyan kings for their religion—so much so that many of the Pāṇḍyan kings embraced Jainism and held it up as the state religion; that the influence of the Jainas waned from about the middle of the 8th century on account of the rise of Agamik Saivism, and that their final fall in the Tamil districts dates from the 9th and 10th centuries, and was due to the militant preaching of the Vaishnava Alvars.

Among the Sangam works attributed to Jaina authors may be mentioned *Palamoli* by Manruraiyaraiyanar, *Sirupanjamūlam* by Kariyāśan, *Elādi* by Kanimedaviyar and *Nālaḍiyār* by a number of Jaina sages. Iļangōvaḍigaļ, author of *Silappadikāram*, was also a Jaina. According to

Digambaradarśana, a Drāvidasangha was started at Madura in 470 by the Jaina guru Vajranandi, who was a disciple of Pūjyapāda. Three of the five major epics and all the five minor epics are by Jainas. The most admired of the major epics, the Chintāmani, is by the Jaina poet Tiruttakkadēvar, whom the Italian missionary Beschi calls the prince of Tamil poets. Further, the grammars Nēminātham and Nannūl, the lexicons Sendan Divākaram and Chūḍamaṇi, and the work on prosody, Yāpparungalam and its commentary are all by Jainas. Pavanandi, the author of Naṇnūl, was patronised by Sīyagangan, a feudatory of the Chōļa King Kulōttunga III (1178–1216). Sīyagangan had the Ganga titles Srīmat-Kuvalālapuraparamēśvaran, Gangakulōdbhavan and Amarābharaṇan, which also occur in inscriptions in connection with the Tamil Gangas of the Kōlār District.

There are some curious stories about the destruction of early Jaina works through sectarian prejudice. There is a tradition that when Sankarāchārya threw Jaina works into the Tunga, one book floated and could not be made to sink. This book was found to be the Amarakōśa which was suffered to live on account of its intrinsic merit. There is a similar tradition with regard to Nāladiyār, a work of the Sangam period. It is said that 8,000 Jaina poets went to the court of a Pāṇḍya king and each wrote a stanza on a scroll. The Hindu poets at the court of the king prejudiced his mind against the newcomers, so much so that the latter decamped leaving their scrolls behind. These scrolls were ordered to be thrown into a river when 400 of them are said to have ascended for the space of four feet against the stream. These scrolls were preserved and formed into a work called Nāladiyār.

# Jaina Authors in the Telugu Country

Some Telugu scholars seem to think that there was a Jaina period in Telugu and that almost all the early Jaina works have been lost. The works that are now available are very small in number, not even half a dozen. These are Jinēndrapurāṇa by Padmakavi (Prabhāchandra) and Adipurāṇa by Sarvadēvaiya. Atharvaṇāchārya appears

to have been a Jaina, judging from his mention of the Jaina authors Hēmachandra, Pūjyapāda and Akalanka. It is said that the work *Kavijanāśraya* bears indications of Jaina authorship.

## Patronage of Kannada Literature

From the earliest times Kannada literature, like those of Tamil and Telugu, has prospered under the fostering care of kings and nobles. Among the patrons may be mentioned the Gangas, the Rāshtrakūtas, the Western and Eastern Chālukyas, the Kākatīyas, the Hoysalas, the Rattas of Soundatti, the Silāhāras of Karad, the Kongālvas, the Chengalvas, the Tuluva kings, the Chautas, and the kings of Vijayanagara and Mysore; as also the Palegars or chiefs of Ummattūr, Nuggehalli, Sugatūr, Piriapattaņa, Madinādu, Bēlūr, Chikkanāyakanahalli, Bijjāvara, Ikkēri, and Kalale. Besides these kings and chiefs, ministers, generals and other officers subordinate to them, and many minor chiefs, have also encouraged literary men. It is also worthy of note that not a few of the above mentioned kings, chiefs and high personages have themselves written works in Kannada and have thus enriched the stock of Kannada literature. These statements will be briefly illustrated by a few examples.

Adi-Pampa (941) was the court poet of the Chāļukya chief Arikēsari and was presented by him with the agrahāra Dharmapura, situated in Bachche-sāsira. Ponna (c. 950) received the title Ubhayakavi-Chakravarti from the Rāshṭrakūṭa King Kṛishṇa III. Nāgavarma I was presented by Bhōja with horses in appreciation of his poetical skill. Ranna got the title Kavi-Chakravarti from the Chāļukya King Tailapa (973–97), along with a gold staff, an elephant, a parasol, chauris, etc. Brahmaśiva (c. 1100) received the title Kavi-Chakravarti with honours from the Chāļukya King Trailōkyamalla. Nāgavarma II was the Kaṭakōpādhyāya of the Chāļukya King Jagadēka-

malla II (1138–50).

Rāghavānka was honoured by Pratāparudra I (1140–96) of Wārangal. Pālkurike Sōmanātha received Donkiparti and other villages from the same king. Pārśva-

pandita was the court poet of the Ratta King Kartavirya IV (1202–20). Sumanõbāna was the Katakõpādhyāya of the Hoysala King Narasimha II (1220-35). Madhura was the court poet of the Vijayanagara Kings Harihara II and Dēvaraya I. The latter's minister, Lakshmīdhara, honoured the poet by presenting him with lands, elephants, horses and ornaments. Chāmarasa (c. 1430) was honoured by the Vijayanagara King Dēvaraya II; and Nīlakanṭhāchārya (c. 1485) by the Ummattūr chief Vīrananjēndra. Kavilinga (c. 1490) was the court poet of Sāluva Narasinga I. Timmannakavi (c. 1510) was presented with cloths and ornaments by the Vijayanagara King Krishnadēvarāya. Sālva (c. 1550) was the court poet of the Tuluva King Sālvamalla. Rāmachandra, author of Aśvaśāstra, and Padmaņapaņdita, author of Hayasāra-samuchchaya were patronised by the Mysore King Chāmarāja (1617-37). Tirumalārya, Chikkupādhyāya and the poetesses Honnamma and Sringāramma wrote under the patronage of the Mysore King Chikkadēvarāja.

Those who wish to have more detailed information about this matter may refer to pp. 8-15 of the Introduction

to Volume II of my Karņāṭaka Kavi Charite.

I may add a few words here about the patronage of Tamil and Telugu Literatures.

# Patronage of Tamil Literature

The Chēra, Chōla and Pāṇḍya kings, princes, potentates, ministers, military officers and zamindars gave generous patronage to poets and learned men. One or more poets formed part of the personal staff of kings and princes and were given ināms which even their posterity enjoyed in perpetuity. Liberal presents in the shape of money, elephants, palanquins, chariots with horses and flowers of gold were bestowed on deserving poets. Titles of distinction like Aśiriyar (Doctor), Pulavar (Pandit), Kavi-Chakravarti (Emperor of poets), etc., were also conferred upon them. Poets were honoured and respected to such a degree that even kings did not think it dishonourable to act as their palanquin bearers. To

appease the wrath of a poet, a Pāṇḍya queen is said to have borne his palanquin one whole night in the disguise of a male carrier. In the Tamil work called *Padir-ruppattu*, consisting of ten short poems of the Sangam period, which are in praise of some Chēra kings, mention is made of the rewards got by the poets from the rulers

praised by them. To mention a few instances:

The poet Kannanār of Kumattūr is said to have received from the Chēra King, Imayavaramban Nedunjēralādan, a grant of the Brahmadāya of 500 villages and a portion of the revenues of the southern districts for 38 years. The poet Kāppiyanar of Kāppiyaru obtained from the Chēra King, Kalangaykkanni Narmudichchēral, a gift of 40 lakhs of pon and a portion of his kingdom. The poetess Kākkaippāḍiniyār Nachchellaiyar was given by another Chēra monarch, Adukotparttuch-Chēralādan, 9 kappen¹ for making jewels and one lakh of gold coins.

# Patronage of Telugu Literature

Here, too, the Eastern Chāļukyas, the Kakatīyas, the Reddis, the Kōmatis, the Vijayanagara kings, zamindars, ministers, generals and high officers have patronised Telugu poets and scholars. A few instances are given below. Telugu poets generally dedicated their works to some king or chief. King Rājarāja (1022–63) gave the agrahāra Nandamapudi to Nārāyaṇabhatta who helped Nannaiyabhatta in the composition of the Bhārata, Pavaturi Mallanna, the translator of Mahavīrāchārya's Gaṇitasārasangraha, got the agrahāra Navakhandavada. Tikkana Sōmayāji was patronised by Manumasiddhi and Eṛṇapregada was the court poet of Polaya-Vēmareddi. Nachana-Sōma got the village Penchukaladinna from the Vijayanagara King, Bukka I. Srīnātha was the court poet of the Vijayanagara King Dēvaraya II, who bathed him in gold and bestowed upon him the title Kavisārvabhauma. Pillalamarri-Pinaviranna, author of Jaimini-Bhārata, was patronised by Sāļuva-Narasinga I. Allasāni-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Each Rs. 600 weight according to some; 100 palam weight according to others.

Peddanna was the court poet of Krishnadēvarāya and had the title Andhrakavi-Pitāmaha.

# Specimens from Kannada Literature

Ādi-Pampa, deservedly called the best of Kannada poets, is thus praised by Nāgarāja (1331) in his *Puņyā-srava*:

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ಪಸರಿಪ ಕನ್ನಡಕ್ಕೊಡೆಯನೊರ್ವನೆ ಸತ್ತುವಿಪಂಪನಾವಗಂ |
ವಸುಧೆಗೆ ಚಕ್ರಿಯಂತಮರಭೂಮಿಗೆ ವಾಸವನಂತೆ ಸಂತತಂ ||
ರಸೆಗುರಗೇಂದ್ರನಂತೆ ಗಗನಕ್ಕೆ ವಿಕರ್ತನನಂತೆ ಧಾತ್ರಿಯೊಳ್ |
ಪೆಸರ್ವಡೆದಿರ್ದನೀಗಳಮಗೀಗೆ ತದೀಯವಜೋವಿಳಾಸಮಂ || (I. 32)
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The greatness of Nēmichandra and Janna is thus described by Madhura in his *Dharmanāthapurāṇa*: ಸರ್ವರ ಸಮ್ಮ ತಮೆನಗಿದು | ಗರ್ವದ ಮಾತಲ್ಲ ಶಾಸ್ತ್ರಶೌಕಿಕಕಲೆಯೊಳ್ | ಬೇರ್ವರಿದ ನೇಮಿಜನ್ನ ಮ | ರಿರ್ವರ ಕರ್ಣಾಟಕೃತಿಗೆ ಸೀಮಾವುರುಷರ್ || (I. 256)

Chandrarāja and Āchaṇṇa have shown their skill in Sabda-chitra, or verbal ornaments, in their works Madanatilaka and Vardhamāna-purāṇa respectively.

I shall now proceed to quote a stanza each from some of the great poets and a few *Vachanas* from some Vachanakāras:

# Gunavarma I

#### DESCRIPTION OF THE MOON

ಒಡನೆ ಸುರಾಸುರರ್ ಕನಕಪರ್ವತಮಂ ಕಡೆಗೋಲಮಾಡಿ ಮೇಣ್ | ಪೆಡೆ ಪಲವಪ್ಪ ವಾಸುಕಿಮಹೋರಗನಂ ಕಡೆಗಣ್ಣಿ ಮಾಡಿ ಪಾ || ಲ್ಗ ಡಲನ.ಪಾಯದಿಂ ಕಡೆಯೆ ರಾಹುಗೆ ವಾಯುಪಧಾಗ್ರಮೆಂಬ ಪೆ | ರ್ಮಡಕೆಯೊಳಿಕ್ಕಿ ಕೊಟ್ಟ ವೊಸಬೆಣ್ಣಿ ವೊಲಿರ್ದುದು ಚಂದ್ರಮಂಡಲಂ || (Kavicharite I. 25-6)

## Pampa I

#### DESCRIPTION OF THE RAINY SEASON

ಪೊಳಿವಮರೇಂದ್ರಗೋಪದ ಪಸುರ್ತೆಳವುಲ್ಗಳ ತಕ್ತ ಕಾರ್ಮಾಗಿ | ಲ್ಗಳ ಕಿಹುಗೊಂಕುಗೊಂಕಿದ ಪೊನಲ್ಗಳ ಕೆಂಪು ಪಸುರ್ಪು ಕರ್ಪು ಬೆ || ಳ್ಪೊಳಕೊಳೆ ಶಕ್ರಕಾರ್ಮುಕವಿಳಾಸಮನೇನೆರ್ದೆಗೊಂಡು ಬೇಟದ | ತ್ತುಳಗಮನುಂಟುಮಾಡಿದುದೊ ಕಾಮನಕಾರ್ಮುಕದಂತೆ ಕಾರ್ಮುಕಂ || (I. 37-8)

### Ranna

#### DESCRIPTION OF THE SPRING

ನವಸಹಕಾರದಂಕುರದಿನಂಕುರಿಸಿತ್ತು ವೊದಲ್ದು ನೀಳ್ದ ಪ | ಲ್ಲವ ತತಿಯಿಂದೆ ಪಲ್ಲವಿಸಿತುನ್ಮದ ಭೃಂಗಕುಳಕ್ಕೆ ಕಂಪುನೀ || ಜುವ ಕುಸುಮಂಗಳಿಂ ಕುಸುಮಿಸಿತ್ತು ಶುಕವ್ರಜಮುತ್ಸು ಕತ್ವದಿಂ | ಸವಿವ ಫಲಂಗಳಿಂ ಫಲಿತಮಾಯ್ತ್ತು ಮನೋಜಮನೋರಧದ್ರುಮಂ || (I. 67)

# Nāgachandra

#### DESCRIPTION OF THE BEE

ಬಿರಿಮುಗುಳೊಳ್ ಮುಸುಂಬನಲೆದೊಯ್ಯನೆ ಕರ್ಣಿಕೆಯಂ ಕರ್ದಂಕಿ ಕೇ | ಸೆರಮನೆಱಂಕೆಯಿಂ ಕದಱು ಬಂಡನುರಂಬರ ಮುಂಡು ತಕ್ತಿ ಸಡ್ || ವೊರೆಯೊಳಡಂಗಿ ನುಣ್ಣ ರದಿನಾಣತಿಮಾಡಿದುದುನ್ಮ ದಾಳಿ ತಾ | ವರೆಯೊಳಗಿರ್ದ ಲಕ್ಷ್ಮ್ನಿಯ ಮನಂಬಡೆದೆಕ್ಕು ಲಗಾಣನೆಂಬಿನಂ || (I. 110)

#### Harīśvara

DESCRIPTION OF PÄRVATI ENGAGED IN WORSHIP ಒರೆದರೊ ಬಯ್ತರೊ ವೊಲ್ದರೊ | ವೊರೆದರೊ ಬೆಚ್ಚರೂ ಮರಳ್ವಿ ಕರುವಿಟ್ಟರೊ ಕಂ | ಡರಸಿದರೊ ಕಡೆದರೋ ಎನೆ | ಗಿರಿರಾಜತನೂಜೆ ವೂಜೆಯೊಳ್ ರಾಜಿಸುವಳ್ || (I. 229)

## Rudrabhatta

### DESCRIPTION OF THE CHĀTAKA BIRD

ವುನದನುರಾಗದಿಂ ನೆಗೆದು ನೀಡಿದ ಕಂರಮರಲ್ದ ತುವುಬ್ಬಲು | ಬ೯ನಿಮಿಷಮಾದ ಕಣ್ ತೆಂದೆದ ಚಂಚು ವಿಜೃಂಭಿಸೆಂಕ ರಂಜಿಸಿ || ತ್ತೆನೆ ನಲವೇಂದ ತೋರವನಿ ತಣ್ಬನಿ ಮುಂಬನಿಯೆಂಬ ಕಾರ್ಮುಗಿ | ಲ್ಪನಿಯನಲಂಪಿನಿಂದಮಿದಿರ್ಗೊಂಡು ಕರ್ದಕಿದ್ದಭ್ಯಚಾತಕಂ || (I- 273)

## Aggala

#### DESCRIPTION OF A YOUNG BEE

ಕಿಹುವುಡುಗೊಂಡ ಬಂಡಿನೊಳಗೀಸಿ ಪೊದಪ್ಪಿಡಿದಿರ್ದ ಕುತ್ತೆಸ | ಬ್ಗು ಹುವದೊಳೆಯ್ದೆ ಮೆಯ್ಗ ರೆದು ಕೇಸರದೊಳ್ ನಲವಿಂ ಪೊರಸ್ದು ನೀ || ಭೈ ಹಿಗಿದ ಕೀಡಸಚ್ಮಿ ಣಿಯೊಳೊಯ್ಯನೆ ಜಾಹು ಪರಾಗ ಪುಂಜದೊಳ್ | ಪಹುವಡಿಸಿತ್ತು ಭೃಂಗಶಿಶು ನೀರಜದೊಳ್ ನಿಜಪಾಂಸುಕೇಳಿಯಂ || (I. 287)

#### $D\bar{e}vakavi$

#### DESCRIPTION OF THE CHAKORA BIRD

ಅರೆಮುಗಿದಕ್ಷಿಗಳಾ ತೆಜೆದ ಚಂಚುವುಟಂ ನಸುಸೋಂಕಿ ನೀಳ್ದ ಕಂ | ಧರಮಿರದಿರ್ಕೆಲಂಗಳೊಳೆಟಲ್ಪ ಪತತ್ರವುಟಂ ಸಡಿಲ್ಪಮೆಯಾ || ಸರಲತೆವೆತ್ತು ಜರ್ಚಿದ ನವಿರ್ ಪರಿರಂಜಿಸಲೀಂಟುತಿರ್ದುದು | ಬ್ಬರಿಸಿದ ಚಂದ್ರಿಕಾರಸಮನಂಚಿತ ಚಾರು ಜಕೋರಸಂಚಯಂ || (I. 318)

#### Kamalabhava

#### DESCRIPTION OF CURDS

ಅಧರೀಕೃತ ಶಾರದ ನೀ | ರಧರದ್ಯುತಿಯೆನಿವ ಕೆನೆಯನೊಳಕೆಯ್ದಿ ರ್ವಾ | ಮಧುರಾಮ್ಲ ಮಪ್ಪ ದಧಿಯಂ | ವಿಧುವದನೆಯರೊಸೆದು ನಿಸದಮನೆ ಬಡ್ಡಿ ಸಿದರ್ || (I. 365)

#### Chandrakavi

#### DESCRIPTION OF MUSIC

ತಿಂಗಳ ಬಿಂಬವುಂ ಹಿಡಿದು ಹಿಂಡೆ ಪಳಚ್ಚನೆ ಸೋರ್ವ ಸೋನೆಯಂ | ತಿಂಗಡಲಿಂ ವೊದಲ್ದ ವರ್ದನೆತ್ತಿದೊಡೊಯ್ಯನೆ ಸೋರ್ವ ಸೋನೆಯಂ || ತಂಗಜನಿಕ್ಸು ಕಾರ್ಮುಕವನೇಱುಸೆ ಜುಮ್ಮನೆ ಸೋರ್ವ ಸೋನೆಯಂ | ತೇಂಗಡ ಸೀಯನುಣ್ಮಿ ದುದೊ ಗೇಯದ ಮೆಲ್ಲುಲಿ ಜಾಣಗಾಣನಾ || (II. 82)

## Mangarasa III

#### DESCRIPTION OF THE RICE FIELD

ಕಟಮೆಯ ಕದಿರ ಮೀಸಲ ಕಂಪಸುಣಲೆಂ | ದಳಿಸಿಸುಗಳು ಕೊನೆಯೇಱು | ಪೊಳೆದುವು ಪೂಗಣೆಯನ ಪಸುರ್ಗಾವಿನ | ತೊಳಪ ನೀಲದ ಮಿಂಟೆಯಂತೆ || (II. 182)

## Ratnākaravarni

#### DESCRIPTION OF MUSIC

ಒಳಗುಣ್ಮಿ ದಾನಂದರಸ ತನ್ನ ತನುತುಂಬಿ | ತ್ರಳುಕಿ ಹೊಱಗೆ ಸೂಸುವಂತೆ | ತೆಳುವಸುಱುಂದ ಬಾಯ್ದೆ ಹೆಯೊಳು ಸುಸ್ಪರ | ಹೊಳೆದು ಮೋಹಿಸುತಿದ್ದು ದಾಗ || (II- 279)

## Shadaksharadēvc

#### DESCRIPTION OF THE RICE FIELD

ತೂಗುತೆ ತೊನೆಯುತೆ ಒಳ್ಳುತೆ | ಜಾಗುತೆ ಕಂಪಿಡುತೆ ಕನೆಕರುಚಿದಾಳುತ್ತುಂ | ರಾಗಿಸುತೆ ರಂಜಿಸುತೆ ಸೊಂ | ಪಾಗಿರ್ದವು ಕಣ್ಗೆ ಗಂಧಶಾಲವನಂಗಳ್ || (II. 445)

# Chikkupādhyāya

#### DESCRIPTION OF THE SUGAR-CANE

ನಳಿನಶರಂ ಸುಧೆಯಂ ವೊಂ | ಗೋವಿಗಳೊಳ್ ತೀವಿ ಬೆಳ್ಳಿಯಿಂ ಬಿಗಿದು ಶುಕಂ | ಗಳ ಕಾಪನಿಟ್ಟವೋಲ್ ಕ | ಣ್ಗೊಳಿಕುಂ ವುಂಡ್ರೇಕ್ಸ್ನದಂಡತತಿ ಗರ್ದೆಗಳೊಳ್ || (II. 478)

## VACHANAS

# Dēvara-Dāsimayya

ಅಡಗ ತಿಂಬರು ಕಣಕದಡಿಗೆಯಿರಲ್ಕೆ; ಸುರೆಯ ಕುಡಿವರು ಹಾಲಿರಲ್ಕೆ; ಮುಕ್ಕುವರು ಭಂಗಿಯ ಸಕ್ಕರೆಯಿರಲ್ಕೆ; ಸ್ಪಸ್ತ್ರೀ ಇದ್ದಂತೆ ಪರಸ್ತ್ರೀಯರಿಗೆ ಅಳಿವುವರು; ಸತ್ತನಾಯ ಭಕ್ಷಿಸುವ ಹಡಕಿಗರನೇನೆಂಬೆಳಯ್ಯ ರಾಮನಾಧಾ.

ಎತ್ತಪ್ಪೆ ಶರಣಂಗೆ; ತೊತ್ತಪ್ಪೆ ಶರಣಂಗೆ; ಭೃತ್ಯ ನಾಗಿ ಸದ್ಭಕ್ತರ ಮನೆಯ ಬಾಗಿಲ ಕಾದಿರ್ಪ ಸೊಣಗನಪ್ಪೆ; ಕರ್ತಾರ, ನಿನಗೆ ಕರವೆತ್ತಿ ಪೊಡೆವಡುವ ಭಕ್ತರ ಮನೆಯ ಹಿತ್ತಲ ಬೇಲಿಯಾಗಿಪ್ಪೆಸೈ ರಾಮನಾಧಾ.

(cp. ತವದಾಸ್ಯ ಸುಖೈಕ ಸಂಗಿನಾಂ, etc.)

ಹರ ತನ್ನ ಭಕ್ತರ ತಿರಿವಂತೆ ಮಾಡುವ; ಒರೆದು ನೋಡುವ ಸುವರ್ಣದ ಚಿನ್ನ ದಂತೆ; ಅರೆದುಸೋಡುವ ಚಂದನದಂತೆ; ಅರಿದುಸೋಡುವ ಕಬ್ಬಿನ ಕೋಲಿನಂತೆ; ಬೆದಱದೆ, ಬೆಚ್ಚದೆ ಇದ್ದ ಡೆ ಕರವಿಡಿದೆತ್ತಿಕೊಂಬ ನಮ್ಮ ರಾಮನಾಧನು.

## Basava

ಹಾವು ತಿಂದವರ ನುಡಿಸಬಹುದು; ಗ್ರಹ ಹೊಡೆದವರ ನುಡಿಸಬಹುದು; ಸಿರಿ ಹೊದ್ದಿ ದವರ ನುಡಿಸಬಾರದು ನೋಡಯ್ಯ. ಬಡತನವೆಂಬ ಮಂತ್ರವಾದಿ ಹೊಗ ಲೊಡನೆ ತಾವೆ ನುಡಿವರಯ್ಯ, ಕೂಡಲ ಸಂಗವ್ಯದೇವ.

ವಚನದಲ್ಲಿ ನಾಮಾವುೃತತುಂಬಿ, ನಯನದಲ್ಲಿ ಮೂರುತಿತುಂಬಿ, ಮನದಲ್ಲಿ ನಿಮ್ಮ ನೆನಹುತುಂಬಿ, ಕಿವಿಯಲ್ಲಿ ನಿಮ್ಮ ಕೀರ್ತಿತುಂಬಿ, ಕೂಡಲಸಂಗಮದೇವ, ನಿಮ್ಮ ಚರಣಕಮಲದೊಳು ಸೊಗದ ಬಂಡನುಂಒ ತುಂಬಿಯಾಗಿರ್ಪೆಸು.

ವಿಷಯವೆಂಬ ಹಸುರನೆನ್ನ ಮುಂದೆ ತಂದು ಪಸರಿಸದಿರಯ್ಯ, ಪಶುವೇನ ಬಲ್ಲುದು ಹಸುರೆಂದೆಳಸುವುದಲ್ಲದೆ? ವಿಷಯರಹಿತನಮಾಡಿ, ಭಕ್ತ್ತಿರಸವ ದಣಿಯಮೇಯಿಸಿ, ಸುಬುದ್ದಿಯೆಂಬ ಉದಕವನೆಱೆದು, ನೋಡಿ ಸಲಹಯ್ಯ ಕೂಡಲ ಸಂಗಮದೇವ.

# Chikkaiya

ಅಸ್ದಿ ಚರ್ಮ ಮಾಂಸ ರಕ್ತಖಂಡದ ಚೀಲ ಲೆಕ್ಕಕ್ಕೆ ಬರುವುದೆ? ಹುರುಳಿಲ್ಲ ಸಂಸಾರ, ಎಂದಿಂಗೆ ನಾನೀ ಹೊತ್ತ ಹೊಡೆಯನಿಲುಹುವೆನಯ್ಯಾ, ಎಂದಿಂಗೆ ನಾನಿದ ಬಳಸಿ ಕಳೆವೆನಯ್ಯಾ, ಎಡಹಿ ಕೊಡಸುದಕವ ನಡುನೀರಲ್ಲೊ ಡೆವಂತೆ ಎನ್ನೊಡ ಲೊಡೆದು ನಿಮ್ಮ ನೆಂದಿಂಗೆ ಶೆಗಸುವೆನು ಉಳಿಯುಮೇಶ್ವರಾ.

## Soddala-Bācharasa

ಗಂಡನುಳ್ಳ ಹೆಂಡಿರ ಕಂಡು ಅಳಿಸದಿರಾ ಮನವೇ! ಒಂದ ಬಸಿಅಸು ಉಂಡ ಮೊಲೆಯನ್ನು ಕಂಡು ಮುುಗದಿರಾ ಮನವೇ! ಉದ್ದಂಡತನದಲ್ಲಿ ನಡೆದ ಛಂಡರಸು ಹುಟುಗೊಂಡದಲ್ಲಿಕ್ಕದೆ ಜಿಡುವನೆ ನಮ್ಮ ದೇವರಾಜ ಸೊಡ್ಡಳ.

# Urilingadēva

ನಲ್ಲನೊಲ್ಲೆ ನೆಂದು ಮುನಿದು ನಾನಡಗಲು, ಅಡಗುವೆಡೆಯೆಲ್ಲಾ ತಾನೆ ನೋಡೆಲ ಗವ್ಪಾ, ನಲ್ಲ ನೀನಿಲ್ಲದೆಡೆಯಿಲ್ಲ; ಅಡಗಲಿಕ್ಕಿಂಬಿಲ್ಲ, ಮುನಿದು ನಾನೇಗುವೆನು? ಶರಣುಗತಿ ಹೊಗುವೆನು ಉರಿಲಿಂಗದೇವನ.

# Mahādēviyakka

ಒಮ್ಮೆ ಕಾಮನ ಕಾಲ ಹಿಡಿವೆ; ಮತ್ತೊಮ್ಮೆ ಚಂದ್ರಮಂಗೆ ಸೆರಗೊಡ್ಡಿ ಬೇಡುವೆ; ಸುಡಲಿ ವಿರಹವ, ನಾನಾರಿಗೆ ಧೃತಿಗೆಡುವೆ? ಚೆಸ್ನ ಮಲ್ಲಿಕಾರ್ಜು ಸದೇವ ನೆನ್ನ ನೊಲ್ಲದ ಕಾರಣ ಎಲ್ಲರಿಗೆ ಹಂಗುಗಿತ್ತಿಯಾದೆನಪ್ಪಾ.

# Satyakka

ಇನಿಯಂಗೆ ತವಕವಿಲ್ಲ, ಎನಗೆ ಸೈರಣೆಯಿಲ್ಲ; ಮನದಿಚ್ಚೆಯನರಿವ ಸಖಿಯರಿಲ್ಲ; ಮನ್ಮ ಧ ವೈರಿಯನು ಭಾವದಲ್ಲಿ ಮನಸಿಲುಕಿ ಬಡದು, ಇನ್ನೇವೆನಿನೈ ವೆ, ದಿನ ವೃಥಾಹೋಯಿತು, ಯವ್ವನ ಬೀಸರ ವೋಗದಮುನ್ನ ಪಿನಾಕಿಯ ತಂದು ನೆರಹವ್ವಾ ಶಂಭುಜಕ್ಕೇಶ್ವರನ.

I shall conclude by giving an amusing extract from Kanakadāsa's *Rāmadhānyacharite*, which is in the form of a dialogue between the grains rāgi and rice regarding their relative superiority; and another comical extract from Mangarasa III's *Samyaktvakaumudi* describing a hearty dinner.

# Rice says:

ಕ್ಷಿತಿಯವುರರವನೆಯನದಲಿ ಸು | ಪ್ರತ ಸುಧೋಜನಗಳಲಿ ಮಂತ್ರಾ |
ಕ್ಷತೆಗಳಲಿ ಶುಧಶೋಭನದಲಾರತಿಯ ಬೆಳಗುವಲಿ ||
ಕ್ರತುಗಳಿಡೆಯೊಳಗರಮನೆಗಳಲಿ | ಪ್ರತಿ ದಿನವು ರಂಜಿಸುತ ದೇವರಿ |
ಗತಿಶಯದ ನೈವೇದ್ಯವಾಗಿಹೆನೆಂದನಾ ಪ್ರಹಿಗ ||
ಜನವರಿಗೆ ಶಿಶುಗಳಿಗೆ ಬಾಂಧವ | ಜನರಿಡೆಗೆ ಬ್ರಾಹ್ಮರ ಸಮಾರಾ |
ಧನೆಗೆ ವಿದ್ಯಾರಂಭ ಕಲಿಸುವ ಸಕಲ ಭೂಸುರಂ ||

ಮನೆಗಳಲಿ ಹರಿದಿವಸದೌಪಾ | ಸನಗಳಲಿ ತಾಯೋಗ್ಯನಹುದೆಂ | ಬೆನಿಸಿಕೊಂಬೆನು ನೀನಯೋಗ್ಯನು ಭ್ರಷ್ಟ ತೊಲಗೆಂದ || ಹೊಸಮನೆಯ ವುಣ್ಯಾರ್ಚನೆಗೆ. | . . . ಹಸುಮಕ್ಕಳಿಗೆ ಸೇಸೆಗೆ | ವಸುಮತೀಶರ ಗರುಡಿಯಲಿ ಶಸ್ತ್ರಾಸ್ತ್ರದರ್ಚನೆಗೆ || ಎಸೆವ ವಿಪ್ರರ ಫಾಲದಲಿ ರಂ | ಜಿಸುತ ಗಂಧಾಕ್ಷ ತೆಯಪೆನು ಭಾ | ವಿಸಲು ಲೋಕದೊಳಾರು ಸರಿ ತನಗೆಂದನಾ ವಿ,ಹಿಗೆ ||

## Rāgi replies:

ಸತ್ವಹೀನರ ಬಡವರನು ಕ | ಹ್ಣಿತ್ತಿ ನೋಡೆ ಧನಾಢ್ಯರನು ಬೆಂ | ಬತ್ತಿ ನಡೆವೆಯುಪೇಕ್ಷೆ ನಿನ್ನದು ಪೇಟಲೇನದನು || ಹೆತ್ತ ಬಾಣತಿಯರಿಗೆ ರೋಗಿಗೆ | ಪಥ್ಯಪಾನದಿ ಹೆಣದ ಬಾಯಿಗೆ | ಪತ್ತು ನೀನಹೆ ನಿನ್ನ ಜನ್ಮ ನಿರರ್ಧಕರವೆಂದ || ಮಡದೆಗೆದು ಬೆಳೆಯಡಗಿ ಕ್ಷಾಮದ | ವಿಳಯಕಾಲದೊಳನ್ನ ವಿಲ್ಲದೆ | ಯಚಿವ ಪ್ರಾಣಿಗಳಾದರಿಸಿ ಸಲಹುವೆನು ಚಗವಹುಯೆ || ಎಲವೊ ನೀನೆಲ್ಲಿಹೆಯೊ ನಿನ್ನಯ | ಬಳಗವದು ನಾನೆಲ್ಲಿಹುದೊ ಈ | ಹಲವು ಧಾನ್ಯಗಳನಗೆ ಸರಿಯಲ್ಲೆ ಂದ ನರೆದಲೆಗ || ಸತ್ತವರ ಪ್ರತಿಬಿಂಬರೂಪನು | ವಿಸ್ತರಿಸಿ ಪಿತೃನಾಮಗಳ ನಿನ | ಗಿತ್ತು ಮೂವರ ಪೆಸರಿನಲಿ ಕರೆಕರೆದು ದರ್ಭೆಯಲಿ || ನೆತ್ತಿ ನೆತ್ತಿಯ ಬಡಿದು ಕಡೆಯಲಿ | ತುತ್ತನಿಡುವರು ಶಿಶುಗಳಿಗೆ ನೀ | ನೆತ್ತಿದೆಯಲಾ ತನುವ ಸುಡಬೇಕೆಂದ ನರೆದಲೆಗ || (II. 240-241)

# Description of Dinner

ದೊಸ್ನೆ ಯಂ ಹರಹಿ ಬಾಡಲೆ ಹಾಳೆಯಂ ಹಾಕಿ | ಬಿನ್ನ ಣದೆ ಮಾಡಿದಾ ಚೌಕದೆಡೆಗಳ ಮುಂದೆ | ಜನ್ನಿ ವಾರವ ಮೇಲಕೆತ್ತಿ ಕಿಡುಸುತ್ತುಮಂ ತೆಗೆದು ಸಡಿಲಿಸಿ ಧೋತ್ರಮಂ || ಚೆನ್ನಾಗಿ ಯಾವೋಶನಮನೆತ್ತಿ ಕುಳ್ಳಿರ್ದು | ಭೆನ್ನ ರುಚಿಮಾಡಿ ಹರಿಸದೆ ಗಡ್ಡ ಮೀಸೆಗಳು | ಮಂ ನೀವಿಕೊಳ್ಳುತ್ತೆ ಭೋಜನವನಿಂತು ಮಾಡುತ್ತಿರ್ದರಾ ಪಾರ್ವರು || ಹಿಗರವ ತಾ ತೊಗೆಯನಿಕ್ಕು ಹಸನಾಯ್ತು ಮೇ | ಲೋಗರವ ಬಡಿಸು ದೊನ್ನೆಗಳು ಹಿಡಿವಂತೆ ಯುಂ | ಟಾಗಿ ಹೆರೆದುಪ್ಪ ವೆಹುಯಾಪಳಿದ್ಯಮಸಟ್ಟು ಕಲಸುವೋಗರವ ತೋಡೌ || ಬೇಗದಿಂದೆಡೆಮಾಡಿದಿಡ್ಡ ಲಿಗೆ ದೋಸೆಗಳ | ಮೇಗೆ ಸಕ್ಕಾರೆ ಬಟ್ಟವಾಲ ಹೊಯ್ಯೆ ಸುತಮಾ | ರೋಗಣೆಯನಾ ಪೊಟ್ಟೆಯೊಡೆವ ಮರ್ಯಾದೆಯೊಳಗುಂಡು ತೇಗುತ್ತಿರ್ದರು ||

### EXTENT AND RANGE OF KANNADA LITERATURE

ಪಾಯಸದ ಪರಿಗಳಂ ನೋಡಿ ಪಂಡಿತರೆ ಸವಿ | ಯಾಯಿತೇ ಆಯ್ತುವಾಧ್ಯಾಯರೇ ಕರಜಿಗೆಯ | ಕಾಯ ದೋಸೆಗಳ ಹಸನಂ ಪುರೋಹಿತರೇ ಚೆನ್ನಾಗಿ ಸವಿಸವಿದು ನೋಡಿ || ಈ ಯೆಣ್ಣೆ ಯೂರಿಗೆಯ ಮೃದುತರಕೆ ಸರಿಯುಂಟೆ | ಜೋಯಿಸರೆ ಕೇಳಿ ಸಕ್ಕ ರೆಒುರುಡೆಗಳ್ ನಮ್ಮ | ಬಾಯ ಒಱನಂ ಜಡಿಸುತಿವೆ ದೀಕ್ಷಿತರೆ ಎಂದು ಕೊಂಡಾಡುತಿರ್ದರಾಗ || (II. 188)

In conclusion I have to offer my cordial thanks to the Mysore University for giving me an opportunity to deliver these lectures.

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